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WORLDWIDE COORDINATION IN A TRANSNATIONAL ENVIRONMENT: AN INQUIRY INTO THE WORK AND CAREERS OF GLOBAL MANAGERS

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DANKWOORD

> *Welke stappen waren het meest bepalend voor uw gehele loopbaan?*
>
> Een doctoraat. Omdat dat de roots heeft gezet. […] Dat ik die specialisatie gekozen heb, is in hetgeen ik nu doe een heel belangrijk element.
> (Respondent uit Vision Corporation)

Tijdens het interviewen vertelde één van de respondenten mij hoe belangrijk zijn doctoraat voor hem was geweest. En ik hoop dat ik in de toekomst zijn visie mag delen dat het doctoraat niet het einde mag markeren van vijf jaar hard werken, maar wel het begin van nog veel meer: mijn roots. Af en toe was het eenzaam en duurde het soms wat te lang naar mijn zin vooraleer er iets 'afgewerkt' was. Maar meestal was doctoreren heel aangenaam. Het laat je namelijk toe om heel zelfstandig te werken aan een groot project dat stilaan vorm krijgt en (hopelijk) een belangrijke bijdrage mag leveren tot 'de wetenschap'. Enkele mensen verdienen hiervoor een bijzonder woord van dank, want het doctoraat zou niet tot stand zijn gekomen zonder hun doorslaggevende rol en bijdrage.

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Aim of the dissertation

From the mid-1990s, the mobility of human resources, and more specifically expatriation, has been an increasingly popular strategy for organizations operating in the international business environment (Black, Morrison & Gregersen, 2000). Today, contemporary international human resources management (IHRM) literature is redirecting its focus towards more flexible forms of international mobility originating in changing business relationships (including joint ventures, licensing and contracting), improved communication technology, growing concerns regarding the work/family life balance and a more globally competent workforce (Collings, Scullion & Morley, 2007; Scullion & Collings, 2005). These alternative types of international mobility include amongst others flexpatriate assignments, international business travelers, virtual assignments and international commuters (Collings et al., 2007; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl & Kollinger, 2004; Welch, Worm & Fenwick, 2003) that point towards an entirely new, globally mobile employee. In general, these forms originate from a classification of the length or duration of the assignment, which is usually determined by the purpose of the transfer and the nature of the task to be performed (Scullion & Collings, 2005).

However, globalization also levers a modification of responsibilities that increasingly incorporate coordination in order to achieve a globally integrated organization that retains the capability for local flexibility and responsiveness (Yip, 1992). Given these transnational characteristics of global strategy (Galbraith, 2000; Ghoshal & Nohria, 1993), scholars have started to discuss the appropriate mindsets, skills and competencies of managers that move organizations towards this globally

competitive but locally responsive corporation: global managers (e.g. Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992; Kedia & Mukherji, 1999; Pucik & Saba, 1998). Despite the fast-growing literature on globalization and international mobility, some significant research gaps remain present with regard to global managers.

The first objective of this dissertation refers to the need to empirically ground and study global managers' responsibility of worldwide coordination more in-depth. First, we argue that this is lacking. Within IHRM research, our current understanding of the notion of the global or transnationally competent manager as developed by Adler and Bartholomew (1992) is mainly based upon conceptual discussions and insights from HR managers. This has led to several calls to study global managers empirically by examining their personal perspective (e.g. Pucik & Saba, 1998; Suutari, 2003).

Second, Adler and Bartholomew (1992) suggest that global managers need to deal with many foreign cultures at the same time, learning about their perspectives, tastes, trends, technologies and approaches to conducting business. To examine people's capabilities for intercultural effectiveness, the construct of Cultural Intelligence (CQ) has been developed (Earley & Ang, 2003). Although there is an extensive body of literature on other constructs, such as intercultural competencies (Paige, 2004), cross-cultural competence (Johnson, Lenartowicz & Apud, 2006) or intercultural sensitivity (Olson & Kroeger, 2001), these often suffer from ambiguous construct definition and mix ability with personality (Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay & Chandrasekar, 2007). Approaching global managers' capabilities for intercultural effectiveness from a perspective of intelligence allows precision about the nature of CQ as a set of relatively malleable capabilities that can be enhanced over

time (Earley & Peterson, 2004). Empirical research on CQ however is lacking, especially in the specific context of working across a multitude of culturally diverse settings simultaneously, as global managers do (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992).

Addressing both research gaps and further developing contemporary IHRM theory and research, the first objective of this dissertation is therefore:

> **Research Objective 1:** Contribute to an in-depth and empirically grounded understanding of global managers' work by 1) identifying the characteristics of their job and responsibilities and 2) studying their capabilities to deal with cross-cultural interactions, specific to their job.

A second objective of this dissertation refers to the need to understand the specific features and challenges of global managers' careers. First, earlier research has showed that career issues are a major challenge for both globally mobile employees and their organizations (Suutari, 2003). A number of scholars (e.g. Fish & Wood, 1997; Stahl, Miller & Tung, 2002; Suutari & Brewster, 2003; Tung, 1998) therefore call to study the connection between careers and international assignments more in-depth. A potentially productive approach to study this connection is to conceptualize careers as the unfolding sequence of a person's work experiences over time (Arthur, Hall & Lawrence, 1989; Hughes, 1958), among which international assignments as well as domestic career moves. As such, careers are approached as a journey or path, which is the most common of all career metaphors and allows considering two key underlying facets of careers: its direction and timing (Inkson, 2004). According to Eaton and Bailyn (2000), approaching the career as a (life) path involves the consideration of a number of intersecting cycles in which it is embedded. However, the identification of these cycles and the factors they encompass in international workers' careers is lacking.

Second, the ongoing and changing work experiences throughout careers are developing competencies that individuals can use to facilitate their own career development (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; Jones & Lichtenstein, 2000). Although contemporary IHRM literature covers the competencies needed for international assignments, it does not specify the career impact of international assignments in-depth (Bonache, Brewster & Suutari, 2001). Moreover, Dickmann and Harris (2005) suggest that the link between an international assignment and the development of individual career capital in a global setting is not a certainty. A potentially productive approach would therefore be to examine career competencies in the specific work context of global managers. Three key forms of career competency have been identified: knowing-why, knowing-how and knowing-whom career competencies (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; Lichtenstein & Mendenhall, 2002).

Addressing both research gaps and aiming to further develop the connection between global managers and their careers, the second objective of this dissertation is:

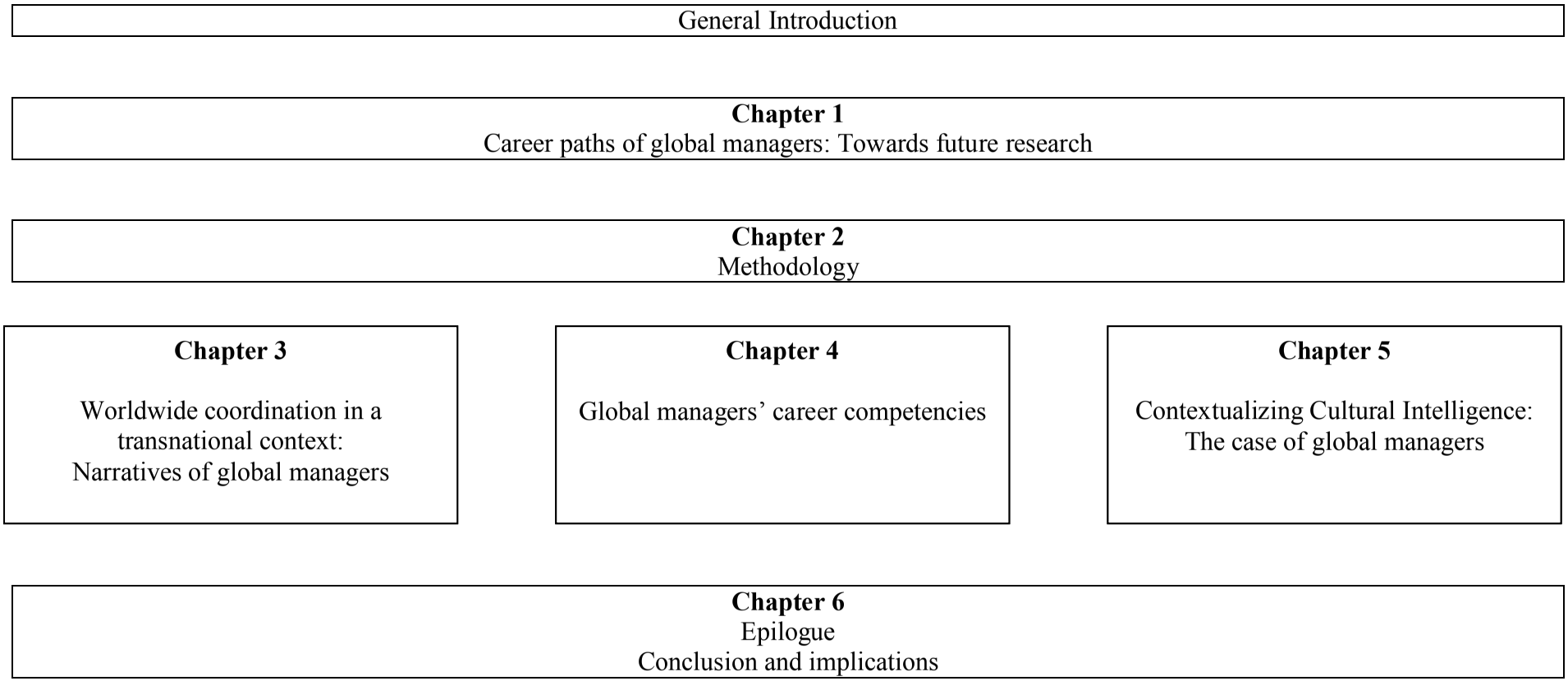
> **Research Objective 2:** Contribute to the emerging research area of international workers' careers by 1) identifying potentially productive areas for future research on career paths that include international assignments and 2) identifying global managers' career competencies.

In sum, the aim of this study is to contribute to a contextualized view on an emerging type of international work, which is the global manager. To do so, we rely on an interview study of 45 global managers in 3 organizations that operate in a transnational environment.

Structure of the dissertation

The dissertation consists of six different chapters (see Figure 1). In the first chapter, we present a literature review of both the boundaryless career literature and empirical research within IHRM literature that relates to career issues, aiming to identify potentially productive areas for future research in IHRM. Through this chapter, the first part of the second research objective is addressed. Next, we discuss the interview study on which the empirical chapters of this dissertation are based. In the third chapter, we discuss the first empirical study that focuses on understanding global managers' responsibility of worldwide coordination, addressing the first research objective. In the fourth chapter, the second empirical study is presented, discussing the career competencies of global managers. This study further addresses the second research objective. In the fifth chapter, the last part of the first research objective is addressed, discussing global managers' Cultural Intelligence by empirically examining their ability to deal with cultural diversity. Chapter six finally focuses on the implications of this dissertation for future research and organizations working through global managers.

Figure 1 Overview of the dissertation



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CHAPTER 1

CAREER PATHS OF GLOBAL MANAGERS: TOWARDS FUTURE RESEARCH[1][2]

Abstract

The aim of this chapter is to identify potentially productive areas where future research on global managers' careers is warranted. Approaching career as a path, we conceptualize a global career path as an intersection of three domains: an individual, an organizational and a global environment domain. To identify, within each domain, the most important factors influencing a global career, we first conducted a review of the literature on boundaryless careers and global managers. This review allowed us to identify those factors that are most relevant to the changing nature of careers and global assignments. We then reviewed past empirical research on international careers to map how previous studies have addressed those factors, further guiding us to formulate directions for future research on global careers. As well as indicating these specific research implications, we propose a contextualized research approach that facilitates understanding of different career moves over time as well as the overall direction of a global career path.

[1] This chapter was published as Cappellen, T. & Janssens, M. (2005). Career paths of global managers: Towards future research. *Journal of World Business,* 40(4): 348-360.

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Introduction

Together with changes in the global context, organizations are changing their approach to global mobility and cross-border transfers. Because of the demand for project work, mergers and divestitures, start-up operations and restructuring, traditional long-term expatriation is giving way to newer, non-traditional transfer types (Cendant Mobility, 2002). Organizations no longer consider permanent transfers to be the only method for corporate integration and transfer of knowledge, but increasingly rely on other types of cross-border moves such as short-term assignments, localized transfer, international commuting, and extended business travel (Cendant Mobility, 2002; Roberts, Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). While these trends point to an entirely new form of globally mobile employee, research on these employees is substantially less developed than research on expatriates (Pucik & Saba, 1998; Suutari, 2003).

It is the aim of this chapter to identify potentially productive areas where future research on global managers is warranted. Specifically, we focus on career issues as this topic represents a major challenge for both the new globally mobile employees (Suutari, 2003) and their organizations (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Pucik & Saba, 1998). Relying on previous definitions (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992; Pucik & Saba, 1998), we consider a global manager to be someone who is assigned to a position with a cross-border responsibility, who needs to understand business from a worldwide rather than from a countrywide perspective, needs to balance potentially contradictory demands in the global environment, and who must be able to work with multiple cultures simultaneously rather than with one culture at a time. To start conceptualizing these managers' careers, we rely on the metaphor of 'career path', the most common of all career metaphors (Inkson, 2004).

Approaching career as a sequence of moves in different directions, it is our purpose to identify the different factors that potentially influence the career paths of global managers.

To develop future research directions on global careers, we first define the notion of career path and map global career paths as the intersection of three domains: an individual, an organizational, and a global environment domain. We then describe in the method section how we conducted two literature reviews. While a first review examines recent articles on the contemporary, boundaryless career and global managers, the second one reviews past empirical research on international careers. The aim of both reviews is to identify, within each domain, the most important factors that potentially influence global career paths. These factors and their research implications are presented in the third section of the chapter. In the fourth section, given our conceptualization of a global career as a path and the intersection of three domains, we further reflect on future research and propose a contextualized research approach. To conclude this chapter, we argue that such a contextualized approach is valid not only for research but also for practice.

Global career as a path

The term career is often defined as the unfolding sequence of a person's work experiences over time (Arthur, Hall & Lawrence, 1989; Hughes, 1958) within an occupational or organizational context (Van Maanen & Barley, 1984). This definition reflects the path metaphor, approaching career as a journey or as movement (Inkson, 2004). This metaphor incorporates two key underlying facets of career: time and direction (Adamson, Doherty & Viney, 1998; Inkson, 2004) that reflect the global manager's career of multiple moves towards different locations and positions.

The definition of career as a path explicitly embraces an evolution over time, a series of career moves. This career definition as 'a sequence of moves' acknowledges the trend that organizations no longer provide fixed career paths and careerists, for their part, no longer pursue lifetime employment and security within a single organizational context. Rather, organizations provide bounded "opportunities for development" and managers take on new, bounded opportunities when they appear (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Rousseau, 1996). Global managers are especially confronted with a series of career moves as they are expected to fulfil multiple short-term assignments and undertake frequent travels. Each of these moves may reflect different skills and experiences gained, relationships nurtured, and opportunities encountered (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Robinson & Miner, 1996). Conceptualizing a global career as a series of moves consequently implies that research on each particular career move can contribute to our understanding of how global managers' motivations and opportunities for development change with new circumstances and over time.

The notion of career as a path implies a route which one is following, having a direction or a purpose that links the successive positions over time (Adamson et al., 1998). However, as careers are moving away from single employment settings, career paths are no longer unidirectional up the hierarchical ladder. It is no longer apparent how an overall career path can be logical and purposeful because career moves can be upwards, downwards, forwards, backwards, sideways or idiosyncratic (Baruch, 2004; Inkson, 2004). The multi- directional nature of a career path implies that the notion of internal career or the subjective sense of where one is going in work life (Schein, 1996) becomes important to provide logic to the overall path. This characteristic also applies to global managers as their different career moves can go world-wide in

different directions, each having a different purpose. Conceptualizing a global career as a path in multiple directions consequently implies that research on the overall route can contribute to our understanding of how global managers make sense of the different moves.

According to Eaton and Bailyn (2000), career paths are embedded in a number of intersecting cycles, of which the organization is no longer the predominant one. The diminishing role of organizations in constituting career paths is also acknowledged in recent career theory (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996), placing personal life which evolves in intersection with economic characteristics (Eaton & Bailyn, 2000) in the foreground. In the case of global managers, these economic characteristics resemble the complex global environment (Rhinesmith, 1996) which instigates us to map global career paths as an intersection of three domains: an individual, organizational, and global environment domain. Inspired by Eaton and Bailyn's (2000, p. 192) conception of career, we suggest the following definition of a global career path, adding the global environment domain. A global career path can be considered "as a series of initiatives and adaptations to employment, family and different communities, evolving with changes in individual interests or skills, life experiences of oneself and the people central to one's personal space (individual domain), the characteristics and requirements of one's contemporary employment context (organizational domain) and the encountered economic pressures, technological opportunities and cultural values of the global context (global environment domain)."

Method

To identify productive areas of future research on global careers, we conducted two

literature reviews. While neither review has the intention to be exhaustive, we aim to provide a well-informed view on the crucial issues inherent to global careers. A first review, examining conceptual literature on the boundaryless career and global management, aims to identify the most important factors that potentially influence contemporary global careers. Within each domain, we search for those factors that both types of literature have recognized as being crucial to the changing nature of global careers. While other factors may affect a career path, we identified only those factors that are most influential on the changing nature of careers and global assignments.

Regarding the boundaryless career literature, we mainly relied on the special issue of 'The Boundaryless Career' in Journal of Organizational Behavior in 1994, and widely-cited books (e.g. Arthur, Hall & Lawrence, 1989; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Collin & Young, 2000). Regarding the changing nature of international assignments, we considered leading articles on global managers in scholarly journals, found through the databank Business Source Premier and cross-references (e.g. Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Caligiuri & Di Santo, 2001; Harvey & Miceli, 1999; Harvey, Speier & Novicevic, 1999; Pucik & Saba, 1998; Roberts et al., 1998; Suutari, 2003). Reviewing both literatures, we followed Miles and Huberman's (1994) suggestion to start with some general themes derived from reading the literature and to add more themes and subthemes as one proceeds. Both authors closely read the different texts, introducing factors from the texts themselves (Ryan & Bernard, 2000) and clustering them into categorical types within each domain.

We then conducted a second review, examining previous empirical studies on international managers in which career issues are examined or discussed. The purpose of this review is to examine whether this empirical literature has in general addressed

the factors within each domain, as suggested by the first review. While the findings of these studies are mainly about expatriates and their careers, they are helpful in formulating research implications regarding careers of global managers.

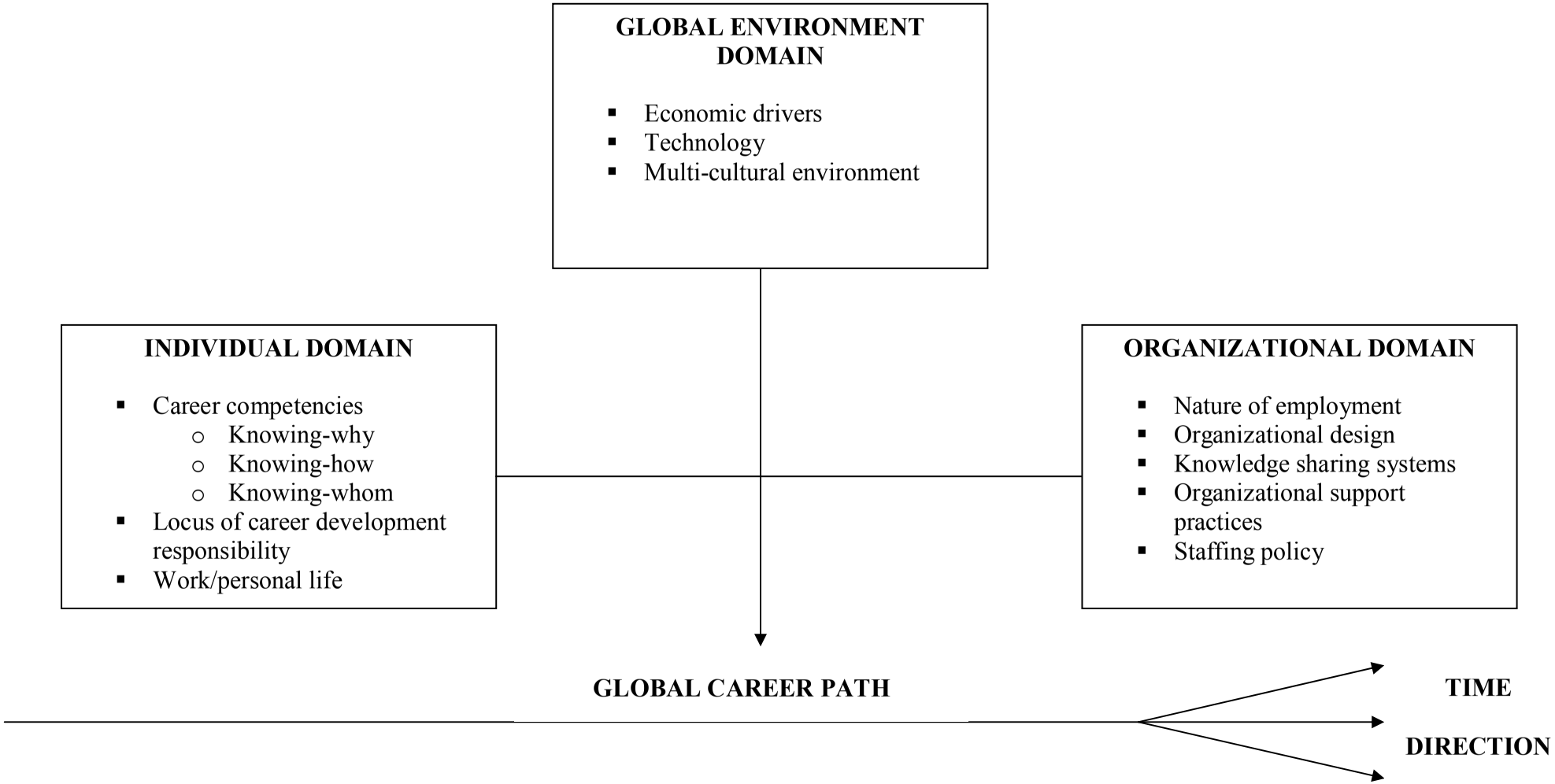
Conducting this second review, we selected empirical articles from three leading journals in international management studies: *Journal of International Business Studies, Journal of World Business*, and *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, and from two other top journals that have published well-known articles on international managers: The *Academy of Management Journal* and *Journal of Applied Psychology*. We scanned these five journals between 1970 and 2003 or from their start until 2003 as this time-span allowed us to identify the dominant approaches within previous empirical research on international careers. In total, 38 empirical articles were selected which examined or discussed an explicit link between career and the international assignment, forming the subject of this review (see Appendix). The findings and insights from these 38 studies were used to draw general conclusions regarding the different factors within each domain as well as to formulate research implications for global careers.

Three domains shaping a global career path: Identifying the most influential factors

Given our conceptualization of a global career as the intersection of an individual, an organizational and a global environment domain, we focus in this section on each of the three domains. For each domain, drawing from the first literature review, we first identify and define the most essential factors that potentially influence global career paths. We then rely on the second literature review in order to assess how previous empirical research on international careers has addressed these factors. We conclude

by discussing the research implications for global careers. Figure 2 provides an overview of the factors within each domain.

Figure 2 Global career path as intersection of three domains



Individual domain

As part of the individual domain, we identified three factors that distinctively point to the changing nature of global careers: career competencies, locus of career development responsibility, and the boundary between work and personal life. These individual factors are discussed within the boundaryless career literature, where they are well-accepted (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Eaton & Bailyn, 2000), as well as in the global management literature.

Career competencies. Within the boundaryless career literature (Arthur, Claman & DeFillippi, 1995; DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994, 1996), it is argued that competency accumulation occurs at the level of the individual, with each form of knowledge dynamically changing in response to shifting environmental, employment and personal variables. Personal competencies reflect these forms of knowing, introducing three different career competencies: knowing-why, knowing-how, and knowing-whom.

Knowing-why competencies answer the question 'Why?' as it relates to career motivation and personal meaning (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994). Career scholars (Mirvis & Hall, 1996; Mohrman & Cohen, 1995) tend to discuss this competency in terms of the individual identifying personally with work rather than with the organization. A similar trend is found in the global management literature in which the intrinsic motivation of global managers embodied in behavior such as searching for international challenges and learning experiences (Suutari, 2003) is stressed. In previous empirical studies on international careers, this intrinsic motivation is found to be an important goal, however, very often complemented by extrinsic factors (Clegg & Gray, 2002; Mayrhofer & Scullion, 2002) and a continued focus on organizational career progression (Peltonen, 1998). Future research on global

managers may therefore examine to what extent this knowing-why competency is different for global managers than for the more traditional international managers. The question arises to what extent global managers' career motivation is predominantly personally determined as theoretically expected.

The second career competency, *knowing-how*, reflects job-related knowledge and career relevant skills (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994). The conceptual literature mainly stresses the nature of this competency, which is portable (Sullivan, 1999), flexible (Brousseau, Driver, Eneroth & Larsson, 1996), transferable (Baker & Aldrich, 1996) and, in the case of global managers, globally applicable (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Roberts et al., 1998). Previous research on international careers has also stressed this competency, however mainly in general terms referring to professional, managerial and intercultural skills (Stahl, Miller & Tung, 2002; Tung, 1998). Only one study (Culpan & Wright, 2002) mentioned more specific types of skills such as language, negotiation and listening skills. In relation to research implications, future studies on global managers may benefit from examining more specifically which types of skills are portable, transferable and globally applicable, given the changing nature of careers and global assignments.

The third and final career competency, *knowing-whom*, reflects career relevant networks (DeFllippi & Arthur, 1994), whose diverse and multiple meanings are stressed. Networks refer no longer only to business networks within the organization but to communities of practice outside the organization (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996), developmental relationships outside one's place of work (Thomas & Higgins, 1996), and in the case of global managers, to extensive global networks beyond the organizational boundary (Roberts et al., 1998). Our review of previous empirical research on international careers indicates mixed results. While some studies

(Linehan, 2002; Linehan & Scullion, 2002) stressed that business networks are crucial for promotion, one study (Au & Fukuda, 2002) emphasized the relevance of culturally diverse networks that help international managers with boundary spanning activities but also give them new career aspirations. Future research on global careers may focus more on examining which types of networks, both within and outside the organizational context, are helpful for global managers' careers.

Locus of career development responsibility. The dynamic context also led career scholars (Mirvis & Hall, 1994) to emphasize our second factor within the individual domain, which is individuals' responsibility for career development. Currently, careerists are regarded as free-agent managers (Mirvis & Hall, 1996), who are willing to go anywhere, at any time (Brousseau et al., 1996), and, in the case of global managers, actively search for possibilities of international assignments, even at the beginning of their career (Suutari, 2003). Some previous studies on international careers seem to have emphasized the prominent role of the international manager in his/her own career development (Culpan & Wright, 2002; Stahl et al., 2002; Tung, 1998). Some authors even went further, redefining the expatriate assignment as an overseas experience (Inkson, Pringle, Arthur & Barry, 1997) or a self-initiated foreign assignment (Suutari & Brewster, 2000), and stressing personal initiatives to obtain an international employment opportunity. Despite this already-present prominence, future research on global careers may offer additional insights into the relevance of individuals' career responsibility by studying more profoundly the types of personal initiatives and their impact on global careers.

Work/personal life. Finally, career (Eaton & Bailyn, 2000; Fletcher & Bailyn, 1996) and global management scholars (Cendant Mobility, 2002; Suutari, 2003) are increasingly questioning the boundary between work and personal life. As

private life is gaining importance and the division between work life and personal life becomes blurred, professional careers are profoundly shaped by family (Goffee & Jones, 2000) and, in the case of global managers, a balance between both is difficult to keep up (Suutari, 2003). Previous studies of international careers have acknowledged this problem, identifying family life as one of the most important factors in managers' willingness and ability to relocate (Harvey, 1998; Linehan, 2002). Future research on global careers may further examine this challenge and study how global managers develop tactics to deal with the tension between work and personal life, taking into consideration Tung's (1998) study in which personal life was found to be a potential coping mechanism rather than a problem.

Organizational domain

The second domain refers to organizational factors that potentially influence career paths. Reviewing the career and global management literature, we identified five factors that both literatures identify as characterizing current organizational contexts: the nature of employment, organizational design, knowledge sharing systems, organizational support practices, and staffing policy.

Nature of employment. Career scholars (Tolbert, 1996) as well as global management scholars (Roberts et al., 1998) have argued at-length that today's organizations increasingly change the nature of employment to seek flexibility. In the case of international companies, project-length assignments, highly mobile teams and more frequent short-term moves are identified as new ways to create a global workforce (Cendant Mobility, 2002). Our review indicates that previous empirical studies of international careers tend to have neglected the nature of employment. While most studies have taken the nature of the international assignment as a given,

two studies (Forster, 1994, 2000) discussed the more short-term cross-border transfers, pointing to the reasons why this type of flexibility has gained importance. Future research may considerably benefit from incorporating this factor in the study of global careers. Given the different types of global assignments, it may study to what extent the nature of employment varies in different career stages or how it impacts the overall direction of a global career.

Organizational design. Together with the trend of limited-term employment relationships, the career literature has argued that organizational forms are moving away from large bureaucratic structures towards more fluid structures such as 'networked' and 'cellular' organisations (Miles & Snow, 1996). A similar argument is found in the global management literature, which discusses the decreasing structural dominance of headquarters, and argues that authority and expertise no longer reside exclusively at the parent company (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Roberts et al., 1998). Our empirical review indicates that, while several studies (e.g. Feldman & Tompson, 1993; Naumann, 1993) examined the relationship between international careers and task characteristics, only one study focused on its relationship with organizational forms. Suutari & Brewster (2000) showed that self-initiated foreign experiences predominantly occurred in project type organizations whereas traditional expatriate assignments more frequently took place in matrix organizations. Reflecting on research implications, future studies may increasingly focus on organizational design as an important contextual factor to better understand global careers. Considering the variety of fluid structures available to international organizations, they may examine how different types of structure influence global managers' (in-house) mobility.

Knowledge sharing systems. Given the new organizational forms, both

literatures also argued the relevance and value of sharing information and knowledge (Pucik & Saba, 1998; Roberts et al., 1998). Knowledge sharing systems have been put forward as the key motivation for cross-border activity (Cendant Mobility, 2002), to facilitate continuous growth and renewal (Miles & Snow, 1996) and create a shared knowledge base (Gong, 2003). As with the two previous organizational factors, empirical research on international careers has neglected this factor. We found only one study (Engelhard & Nägele, 2003) that examined how learning and knowledge exchange were influenced by the career issues of international managers. This study indicated that learning predominantly occurred in one direction, transferring technical skills to local employees, because the career advances of the international managers were linked primarily to the achievement of quantitative goals. Therefore, future research may benefit from stressing this factor, examining to what extent and how global managers share information and knowledge with locals and across subsidiaries, and which barriers they encounter that hinder learning and knowledge building. In addition, it may also consider to what extent and how these knowledge sharing systems take part in the enhancement of employees' global careers.

Organizational support practices. Given the increased utilisation of more flexible forms of work, both career and global management scholars have argued the need for transitional and flexible organizational support practices. Examples of such practices mentioned in both literatures (Mirvis & Hall, 1996; Pucik & Saba, 1998; Roberts et al., 1998) are family support, placement assistance, mentor relationships and valuing (international) experiences. Our empirical review indicates that this organizational factor has been extensively discussed in previous studies of international careers. However, most of them have focused on practices that support a predetermined career track such as a guaranteed re-entry (Tung, 1986), advancement

prospects (Birdseye & Hill, 1995), or the building of a logical chain of international and domestic assignments (Feldman & Thomas, 1992). Given the changing nature of global careers, future research may considerably benefit from focusing on support practices that are more flexible in nature. As suggested by recent studies (Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2001; Suutari & Brewster, 2003), it may examine how to create an organizational environment that is appreciative of global experience and that supports the employment of highly mobile global managers.

Although the focus of previous studies on repatriation and predetermined career tracks is less relevant in the context of global careers, these studies point to a specific topic that remains prominent to global managers: their relation with the home base. While this topic is not identified in the more general career literature, future studies on global careers may examine how organizations deal with repatriation issues in a more flexible way and how global managers manage their relationship with the home base in order to create a successful global career.

Staffing policy. A final organizational factor is the staffing policy, which both literatures argue should be flexible (Harvey & Miceli, 1999; Tolbert, 1996). In the case of global management, this flexible staffing takes the form of global staffing, selecting the most competent global manager from anywhere in the world and using them wherever the organization's staffing needs appear (Harvey et al., 1999; Pucik & Saba, 1998; Suutari, 2003). Our review of empirical research on international careers indicates that previous studies have mainly focused on the type of selection criteria such as skills (Miller, 1973) or profiles (Daniel, 1974; Ondrack, 1985). Again, given the changing nature of global careers, future research may benefit from focusing on flexible staffing. For instance, it may examine the contemporary criteria used to select

global managers as well as how organizations make career path opportunities equally accessible and appealing to managers from all nationalities.

Global environment domain

Along with the individual and organizational domains, we argue that a global career path evolves in intersection with a global environment domain. Reviewing the conceptual literature on boundaryless careers and global managers, we identified three factors - economic drivers, technology and a multi-cultural environment - that we consider distinctive for the current global economy. Although these factors strongly influence organizational reality, we consider them as different from those in the organizational domain because they reflect the macro-context in which international organizations operate.

Economic drivers. Discussing the changing nature of careers and global assignments, both literatures address the specific economic drivers of these changes, which mainly point to an increase in economic interdependencies, both internally and externally (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; Kedia & Mukherji, 1999). In the case of global management, the former implies the need for a global mindset; the latter implies an increase of external organizational contacts, making global organizations a complex web of strategic alliances (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). Our empirical review indicates that previous studies on international careers mainly tend to have neglected this domain. Regarding economic drivers, we found only one study (Inkson et al., 1997) that discussed this factor, arguing that economic drivers oblige organizations to locate the expertise they need outside the company, turning international managers into project managers (Inkson et al., 1997). Future research can therefore increase our understanding of global careers through examining how global managers act as

facilitators of economic interdependencies. In addition, future studies may explore which economic interdependences are best managed at which global career stage.

Technology. The current competitive landscape is further shaped by technology, one of the most salient factors in the change of work and work arrangements (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). In the case of global management, technology has not only reduced barriers considerably but has also impacted the global operations themselves (Kedia & Mukherji, 1999). Electronic communication technologies have allowed new practices like outsourcing of particular jobs to other countries, 24-hour product development, or cross-national relationships among employees regardless of organizational level (Roberts et al., 1998). Our empirical review identified one study relating technology to international careers. Examining the way international managers experience their career cycle, Peltonen (1998) found that some managers relate their international career steps to the stages of the product technology that they work with. Again, future research on global careers may benefit from considering technology as an influencing factor. It may for instance study how technology impacts global careers or how it enables global managers to manage their flexible work situation.

Multi-cultural environment. Besides the economic drivers and technological forces, the environmental landscape of global careers is one of multi-culturalism. Scholars in global management have argued that globalization not only increases the variety and frequency of cross-cultural interactions but also changes their very nature (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). Unlike expatriates of the past, global managers need to be skillful at working with people from many cultures simultaneously (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992), and to have a broadened cultural perspective and an appreciation for cultural diversity (Roberts et al., 1998) that allows them to interact

with international colleagues as equals. This emphasis on simultaneously dealing with multiple cultures is new as our review indicates that previous research on international career has focused only on the interaction with a single host-national culture (Adler, 1984; Florkowski & Fogel, 1999). Future research may therefore increase our understanding of the type of challenges that global managers face through studying how global managers deal with and learn from this multitude of cultures. Or it may examine how these multicultural encounters influence the different career opportunities that global managers identify.

Examining the global career as a path: A contextualized research approach

While, in the previous section, research implications were formulated for each factor potentially influencing a global career, we reflect in this section on the overall research approach to the study of global careers. We suggest these guidelines based on our examination of past research on international careers as well as on our conceptualization of a global career as a path.

A first research guideline is to focus future research on the career paths of global managers as such, aiming to understand the ways in which global careers unfold. While reviewing the previous empirical studies on international careers, we noticed that these studies mainly examined or discussed career issues in so far they related to other outcomes such as facilitating adjustment (Feldman & Tompson, 1993; Selmer, 1998) or repatriation (Harvey, 1989; Stroh, 1995). However, as career development and management become crucial for both global managers and global companies, future research may benefit from studying global career paths as such.

Such research focus may acknowledge and gain insight into the very different types of experiences that are central to global managers.

Second, adopting a more explicit career focus and following other career scholars (Collin, 1998; Eaton & Bailyn, 2000; Hall, 1996), we propose to move away from an individualistic notion of career and take a more contextualized understanding of global careers. Examining previous research, it struck us that past studies examined the individual career factors under study as rather isolated, independent of organizational and global environment factors. They focused on the individual experience of international managers without considering the possible importance of the context in which their career unfolds. Except for the influence of organizational support practices, only a limited number of studies explicitly incorporated organizational and global environment factors to understand international careers. However, the individual with his/her human capital is no longer an isolated figure in career development (Eaton & Bailyn, 2000) but is embedded in broader individual, organizational and global environment domains. Although firm boundaries are no longer rigid as proposed in older organizational career models, the context remains important to the specific day-to-day learning, opportunities and experiences, and to the relationships and networks that global managers develop. Future research may consequently focus on how particular career competencies develop, depending on contextual factors such as the type of organizational design in which global managers work or on their relationships with non-PCN colleagues from other cultures. It may also examine how global managers' differences in locus of career development responsibility relate to employment with different types of employers, having also different types of jobs. Or it may focus on how the context enables or limits a global manager's ability to balance his/her work and personal life.

In general, future research may explicitly examine how the context shapes the ways in which global careers unfold. The methodological implication of such contextual approach is to rely on the use of case studies and in-depth interviews (Yin, 2003). These methods offer the potential to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events, such as global managers' career moves, and to collect rich data through which the intersection of the three domains can be understood (Spradley, 1979).

> Proposition 1: Global career paths are contextually shaped, being the result of the intersection between individual, organizational and global environment domains.

Our conceptualization of global career as a path in terms of time and direction implies two additional research guidelines. As indicated previously, conceptualizing a global career as a path implies a focus on career as 'a sequence of moves.' This time aspect may initiate scholars to develop future research that is focused on understanding each particular move as such and the ways in which career moves may differ. Future research may consequently focus on identifying the most important factors that acted as a career trigger (Hall, 1986), leading the global manager towards a new move. It may also focus on how different factors have a different role at different times. Global managers' search for new challenges and opportunities may change with new circumstances, leading to different career moves.

In general, incorporating the notion of time into global career research may inspire the development of more dynamic career models in which the complex intersection of factors over time will be laid out. The methodological implication of such research questions is to take a longitudinal perspective. Longitudinal research designs allow the unit of study to be observed or measured at more than one point in time (Bijleveld & van der Kamp, 1998), measuring the differences or change from

one period to another (Menard, 1991), through which the different career moves over time can be understood.

> Proposition 2: Global career paths are sequences of moves, in which each move is influenced by a different intersection of the factors within the individual, organizational and global environment domains.

Conceptualizing a global career as a path implies a focus on the direction that purposely links successive positions over time. Since movement between these positions may occur in many possible directions, this aspect of direction may inspire future research to focus on understanding how global managers make sense of the overall route of their career moves. Future studies may consequently assess to what extent career paths following a similar direction are influenced by the same factors. Such studies can examine how the occurrence of a particular pattern of factors determines the direction of a global career path. Or future studies may focus on how managers working in different organizational contexts create a logic for their overall career path by developing a different notion of direction over time. It may also examine how different types of routes are related to the development of different types of career competences or how new strategic alliances, increasing the availability of new opportunities and challenges, may influence the overall route chosen.

In general, incorporating the notion of direction into global career research may inspire the development of particular types of global careers in which the global manager's logic to the overall path is examined. The methodological implication of this research approach is to apply a retrospective design. Retrospective research designs allow studies to look backward and collect data at a single period in time for several periods in the past (Bijleveld & van der Kamp, 1998; Menard, 1991), through which the different logics to the overall path of global managers can be identified.

Proposition 3: Global career paths have an overall direction, which is characterized by a pattern of intersection of the factors within the individual, organizational and global environment domains.

Global career paths: Towards a contextualized practice

Our conceptualization of a global career path as a dynamic intersection of the individual, organizational and global environment domain asks not only for a contextualized research approach but also for contextualized career guidance. Global careers no longer develop within a single organizational setting moving up the hierarchical ladder but instead occur through short-term cross-border transfers, often within different organizational contexts, providing different opportunities for development. The recognition that global careers unfold through this sequence of moves, going in multiple directions, implies that career management and development programs need to become more flexible. A standardized approach to managing global careers is therefore not suitable; rather a contextualized approach is more appropriate.

A contextualized career guidance system may occur at two levels: individual and systemic. At the individual level, a set of skills needs to be developed that transcends the historic competencies required of expatriate managers (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992), moving towards the development of a global mindset that helps global managers function in different contexts. Such global development programs contain both generalizable skills and idiosyncratic components (Morrison, 2000). The generalizable skills are universally applicable or 'meta-skills' that are relevant in different contexts. Examples are to develop managers to become skillful at working with people from different cultures simultaneously rather than to train them to become an expert on one particular culture (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992) or to develop skills in stress reduction (Pucik & Saba, 1998) rather than providing particular solutions to specific problems. While these generalizable skills may help the global manager in

different contexts, a career guidance system also incorporates idiosyncratic components that are specific to the particular conditions of a global work context. Examples are to provide managers with knowledge of professional contacts or international business issues in a particular region (Caligiuri & Di Santo, 2001). Overall, career guidance systems aimed at developing skills need to incorporate both types of competences as a way to increase the personal adaptability of global managers to changing circumstances over time.

At the systemic level, global career guidance addresses the organizational capability to design and manage HR and organizational systems that further allow global managers to function effectively. Following the recent career literature (Rosenbaum & Miller, 1996), one piece of advice is to rely on explicit criteria in different HR practices. Because their assignments are shorter and more flexible, global managers may benefit from explicit criteria in performance appraisals and assessment. Global managers who know how they will be evaluated can focus on those activities which are valued. They can receive explicit feedback about their level of performance and areas where they need more development. Although creating criteria may limit managers' flexibility, both global organizations and managers can gain from explicit criteria if they serve transparency as an overall goal. Another piece of systemic advice is to systematically assess the current HR and organizational systems in order to avoid inconsistencies with respect to global development. This assessment involves evaluating whether particular global practices such as knowledge sharing are inhibited by organizational practices that induce competition such as resource allocation or funding of projects. Overall, the systemic nature of career guidance systems involves designing or assessing organizational practices that are compatible with the nature of global careers. Managing and developing global careers

requires an openness for the particular needs of global managers within a particular career move as well as a critical perspective on the organizational systems that should support a truly global mindset.

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CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, we introduce the interview study on which this dissertation is based. We start this chapter by justifying our choice for a qualitative study based on interviews and defining the general context of the study. Afterwards, we explain how we selected three organizations and identified forty-five global managers. Furthermore, we discuss additional interviews that were conducted with nine HR managers and nine strategic managers. We conclude this chapter by discussing the contribution of the interview study to each of the empirical chapters.

Research strategy

Qualitative research strategy

According to Miles and Huberman (1994), qualitative data are the source of well-grounded, rich descriptions from which fruitful explanations can be derived. Taking into account the limited number of conceptual studies on the transnationally competent (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992) or global manager (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989; Pucik & Saba, 1998), we consider qualitative research to be well suited to the research objectives of this dissertation as it can generate serendipitous findings and help researchers to go beyond initial conceptions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In addition, qualitative research emphasizes the exploration of participants' own situated experiences, aiming for the richness and significance of individual experiences rather than giving overarching reductionist explanations. A qualitative approach allows the researcher to take an 'emic' approach, examining organizations and societies from a

holistic point-of-view that incorporates their context (Marschan-Piekkari & Welch, 2004; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Furthermore, qualitative research goes beyond the pure observable behavior, capturing data from the inside (Miles & Huberman, 1994) reflecting the meanings and beliefs that guide the action (Marschan-Piekkari & Welch, 2004). This is important for example when aiming to understand global managers' career competencies. As such, a qualitative research approach is best suited to understand and further study a complex and under-researched issue in IHRM such as the global manager, taking advantage of rich data that allow the researcher to obtain meaningful results.

Why interviews?

More than survey-based research, interviews allow researchers to get acquainted to a relatively new concept by focusing on a limited number of issues in the everyday lived world of the interviewee (Kvale, 1996). Rather than aiming for quantification, interviews generate a richness of information from each respondent, through which the meaning of central themes in the work life and careers of global managers can be understood (Kvale, 1996). In order to explore the concept of the global manager further, the focus in this dissertation is on nuanced descriptions that depict the qualitative diversity, the many differences and varieties in global managers' work and careers that will ultimately enable the interviewer to arrive at meanings on another level (Kvale, 1996). As such, interview studies add new insights that can lay the groundwork for larger or follow-up studies (Daniels & Cannice, 2004).

Choosing the setting

Qualitative research usually works with small purposive samples of people, nested in their context, which allows researchers to study them in-depth (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In this section, we determine this context and define the organizations worked with throughout this interview study.

General context: Transnational environment

A transnational environment was chosen because it is characterized by both a high need for global integration and local responsiveness (Ghoshal & Nohria, 1993). Operating in such environment requires a global mindset (Kedia & Mukherji, 1999) and global managers who can resolve complex and potentially contradictory issues (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992) such as finding a balance between the simultaneous demands of global integration and national responsiveness (Pucik & Saba, 1998).

Within transnational environments, businesses are increasingly subjected to simultaneous demands for national responsiveness, global efficiency, and worldwide innovation (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989, 2000; Galbraith, 2000; Prahalad & Doz, 1987). As a result, companies are confronted with the complex challenge to respond effectively to all the diverse and potentially conflicting local forces while at the same time integrating opportunities and learning experiences on a global scale to develop and maintain global competitive efficiency (Harzing, 2000). This challenge leads to the dissemination of value-generating activities across different centers of excellence, turning each subsidiary into an organization's world source for a given product or expertise (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 2000). Accordingly, the centralized power of headquarters is distributed among subsidiaries, giving each unit a leadership role in its own expertise or product (Galbraith, 2000). This context has implications for both

local and global management. On the one hand, a strong national subsidiary management is needed to sense and represent local customers' changing needs and the increasing pressures of host governments and regulatory agencies (Rosenzweig & Singh, 1991). On the other hand, a strong global management needs to be in place, establishing communication and coordination between units across geographical, cultural and functional boundaries (Galbraith, 2000) to identify worldwide customers, economies of scale and scope and exchange information, products and people (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989, 2000; Ghoshal & Nohria, 1993). With expertise being spread throughout the organization, the organization becomes an integrated network of distributed and interdependent resources and capabilities.

Three organizations

Within the transnational sectors of drugs and pharmaceuticals, photographic equipment, computers and automobiles (Ghoshal & Nohria, 1993), we selected Pharma Corporation, View Corporation and Vision Corporation, all headquartered in Belgium. Although headquarters are no longer assumed to play the leading part in transnational organizations (Galbraith, 2000), we experienced in our search for global managers that people with worldwide coordination responsibility are most likely to be employed at headquarters.

Pharma Corporation is a Belgian headquartered organization in the pharmaceutical sector that employs 8500 people worldwide. It presents itself as a leading global biopharmaceutical company dedicated to research, development and commercialization of biopharmaceutical products. It has the broadest international reach within our study, with subsidiaries operating in 40 countries. We contacted Pharma Corporation through the network of 'Fellows van het Hogenheuvelcollege'.

This network is a collection of business people connected to the Research Centers within the Faculty of Business and Economics (Katholieke Universiteit Leuven). Pharma Corporation's Management Development Manager has been a 'Fellow' of the Research Centre for Organisation Studies since 2001. After organizing a meeting in which we discussed the objectives of this study and explained the content of Pharma Corporation's expected participation, Pharma Corporation was found prepared to participate in this study.

View Corporation is a Belgian headquartered company in the visualization or photographic sector that employs 4200 people. This organization presents itself as a world leader in professional markets of displays and visualization solutions. It has its own facilities for Sales & Marketing, Customer Support, R&D and Manufacturing in 25 countries in Europe, America and Asia-Pacific. As in the first case, we contacted View Corporation through our department's network of 'Fellows van het Hogenheuvelcollege'. View Corporation's Global Marketing Director has been a fellow of the Research Centre for Accounting, Finance and Insurance (International Finance) since 2006. We first had a meeting with the Global Marketing Director, in which we discussed the objectives of the study. Afterwards, a meeting was set up with the President Human Resources and Corporate Affairs to discuss the practicalities of the study, after which View Corporation decided to participate.

Vision Corporation is the youngest and smallest of the three organizations we studied, with 262 people employed worldwide. It is a Belgian headquartered organization in the visualization sector that has 6 wholly-owned offices in Europe, America and Asia, and works closely together with another 9 distributors in Europe, South-America and Asia. This company presents itself as a leading worldwide developer and supplier of visual inspection equipment. We contacted Vision

Corporation as it is a young spin-off company of Katholieke Universiteit Leuven. Similar to Pharma and View Corporation, we contacted Vision Corporation's Human Resources Director, who was immediately found prepared to participate in the study.

Although these three organizations were different in size and level of growth towards the transnational model (Galbraith, 2000), our initial contacts with the global HR manager indicated that all three organizations relied on global managers to coordinate a specific functional domain on a worldwide scale.

Data collection

A good informant is one who has the knowledge and experience the researcher requires, has the ability to reflect, is articulate, has the time to be interviewed and is willing to participate in the study (Morse, 1986). For the purpose of this study, three different types of informants were identified: global managers, HR-managers and strategic managers. The latter two categories were interviewed to understand the organizational context in which the stories of global managers were situated.

Global managers

Given the purpose of this study to uncover and understand what lies behind the phenomenon of the global manager, about which little is known, we restricted our initial sampling definition of global managers to the ones within the organization who have a position of 'worldwide coordination.' We asked each contact, the Management Development Manager at Pharma Corporation, the Vice-President Human Resources and Corporate Affairs at View Corporation and the Human Resources Director at Vision Corporation, to identify 15 global managers within their organization and introduce the dissertation, interview study and the interviewer through an e-mail

message. Afterwards the dissertation author, who conducted the interviews, contacted each of these informants to ask for their participation. In the following tables, an overview of the interviewees and their backgrounds is given for each organization in this study.

Table 1 An overview of individual interviewees and their backgrounds in Pharma Corporation

Function and position	Gender	Age	Tenure in Pharma Corp. (months)	Global experience (months)	Expatriate experience (months)
Integration manager	M	34	36	36	0
Global R&D Manager	M	46	216	156	72
Business Unit Manager	M	38	92	34	46
Global Business Improvement Manager	F	34	72	60	16
Global Marketing Manager	M	36	128	54	86
Global Product Manager	F	41	24	132	0
Global Alliance Manager	M	38	15	137	32
Director of Corporate Mergers & Acquisitions	M	39	29	65	18
Business Unit Manager	M	44	36	36	0
Vice-President of R&D	M	50	180	168	0
Global Clinical Team Leader	F	37	38	38	0
Worldwide Sales Manager	M	43	200	192	8
Worldwide Chemical Engineering Manager	M	40	150	150	0
Global Purchasing Director	M	46	270	181	12
Director of Global Research	F	49	96	276	0

Table 2 An overview of individual interviewees and their backgrounds in View Corporation

Function and position	Gender	Age	Tenure in View Corp. (months)	Global experience (months)	Expatriate experience (months)
Marketing Manager	M	35	122	122	0
Global Market Director	M	35	101	77	24
Worldwide HR Manager	F	36	120	24	0
Global Product Group Director	M	40	120	84	0
Vice-President Worldwide Sales & Marketing	M	43	24	90	12
Vice-President Worldwide Sales & Marketing	M	44	29	163	36
Director of Global Product Management	M	36	29	69	0
Global Director of Corporate Marketing	F	41	108	108	0
Worldwide Accounting Manager	M	36	46	46	0
Business Unit Vice-President	M	44	255	219	0
Worldwide Sales Director	M	41	89	89	13
Worldwide Purchase Director	M	44	192	192	0
Worldwide Quality Manager	M	43	72	108	0
Business Unit Vice-President	M	41	228	180	0
Worldwide Sales and Marketing Manager	M	43	95	110	0

Table 3 An overview of individual interviewees and their backgrounds in Vision Corporation

Function and position	Gender	Age	Tenure in Vision Corp. (months)	Global experience (months)	Expatriate experience (months)
Chief Financial Officer	M	46	69	108	0
Global Marketing Director	M	33	19	19	0
Global R&D Director	M	45	150	150	0
Crisis Manager	M	43	180	168	12
Global R&D Director	M	41	180	180	0
Training & Documentation Manager	M	41	102	126	0
Vice-President Operations	M	47	16	105	0
Planning & Purchasing Manager	M	34	109	85	0
Group Responsible	M	33	84	84	0
Group Responsible	M	37	68	68	9
HR Director	M	38	102	102	0
Global Product Manager	M	36	3	138	0
Global Product Manager	M	38	96	96	6
Vice-President Worldwide Sales & Marketing	M	47	132	180	0
Vice-President R&D	M	51	228	228	0

The 45 interviewees were primarily male, except for 6 women. The majority (41) had the Belgian nationality; the other interviewees had the Indian, Luxemburg, French or Dutch nationality. The average age of the interviewees was 40 years. They held positions with global coordination responsibility in different functional domains: R&D, HRM, sales, finance, operations and marketing.

We started each interview by stressing our interest in the respondent's personal experiences in the areas of 'work, career and organization' (Peltonen, 1999). We then asked each global manager a 'generative narrative question' (Flick, 1998) on their career history: 'Could you tell me the story about your career and the different steps you made towards your current position. What were in your experience the different moves you made during your career? Why were they important to you and how did they come about?' We formulated this type of question as it provides a facilitating context to speak elaborately about career experiences in their context (Riessman, 1993). In this way, the career story becomes a meaningful structure that organizes events and actions into a coherent picture of the career considering the extent to which they have affected it (McGaughey, 2004). The curriculum vita of each global manager, which was collected beforehand, served as background information during the interview.

The interview continued using a semi-structured scheme asking questions that probe for personal experiences of global managers. These questions considered topics on 1) the international dimension of work, such as 'Which of these moves do you consider international in nature?', 'What was your task within this expatriate assignment?' and 'How do you handle cultural differences?'; 2) individual and organizational career management tactics, such as 'Does the organization have formal, institutionalized plans to develop your career?' and 'What personal efforts

have you made to develop you career?'; and 3) a general evaluation of their careers and future career opportunities such as 'Did you make the career progress you expected to make?' The interviews were conducted in 2005 and 2006 at the interviewees' offices and their length ranged from 1 hour to 3 hours. They were conducted in Dutch or English and were tape-recorded and fully transcribed.

A first analysis of these interviews indicated the enormous variety of career moves. As we considered global managers' individual experience of career moves to be decisive (Flick, 1998), the respondents themselves determined whether the career move was distinct. Afterwards, this individual perception was compared to the steps described in the curriculum vita. Based upon these career moves, we reconstructed for each global manager his/her career path. They are depicted in a visual representation per organization under study.

Figure 3 Career paths of global managers within Pharma Corporation

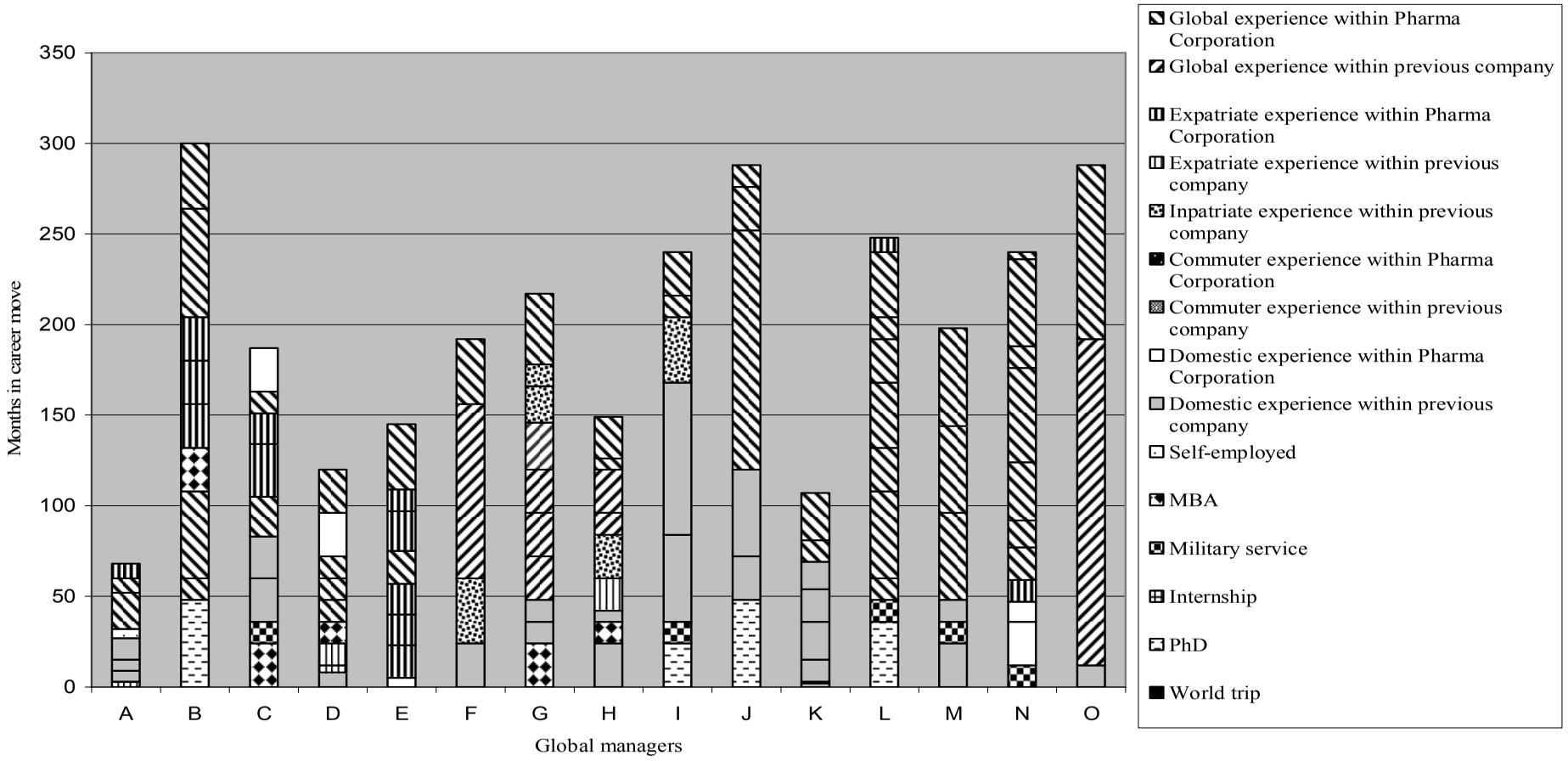


Figure 4 Career paths of global managers within View Corporation

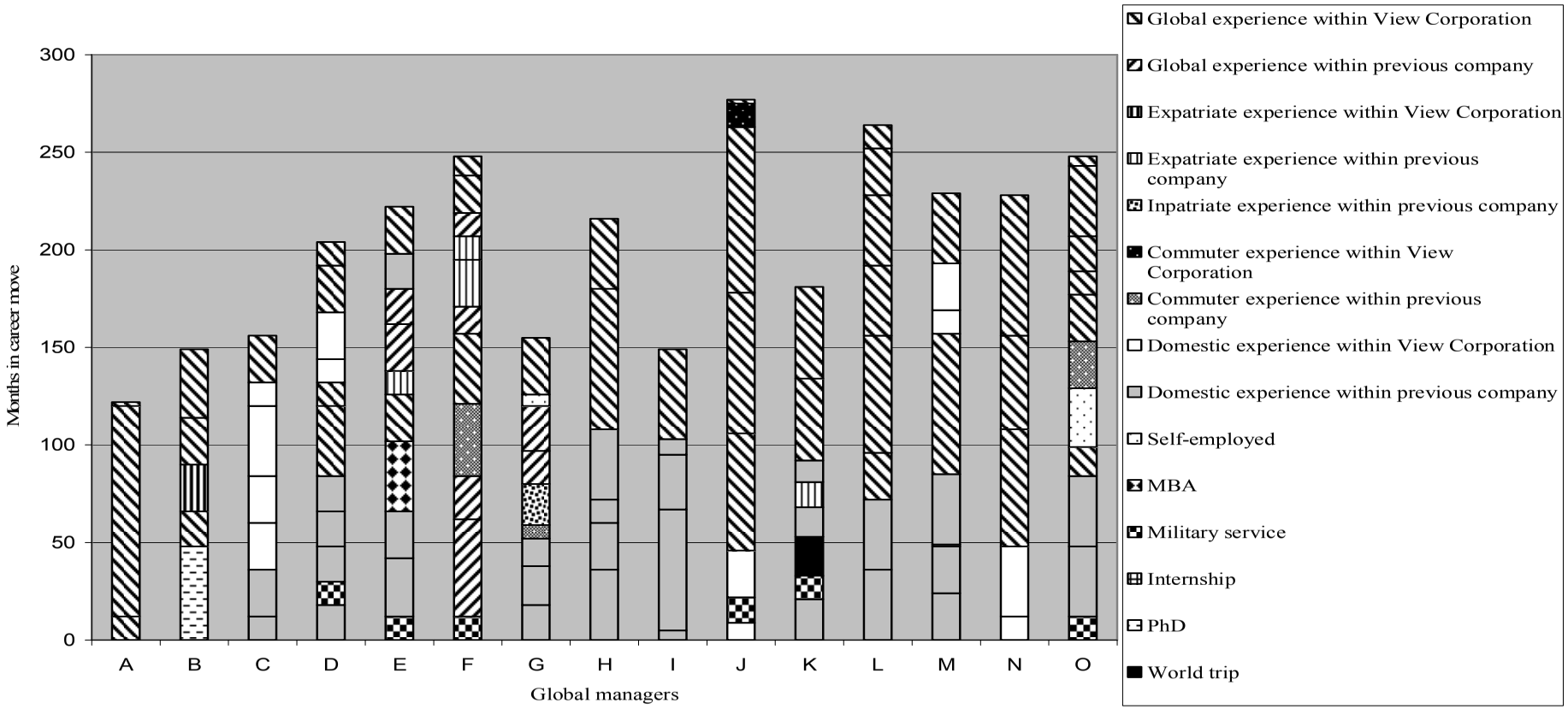
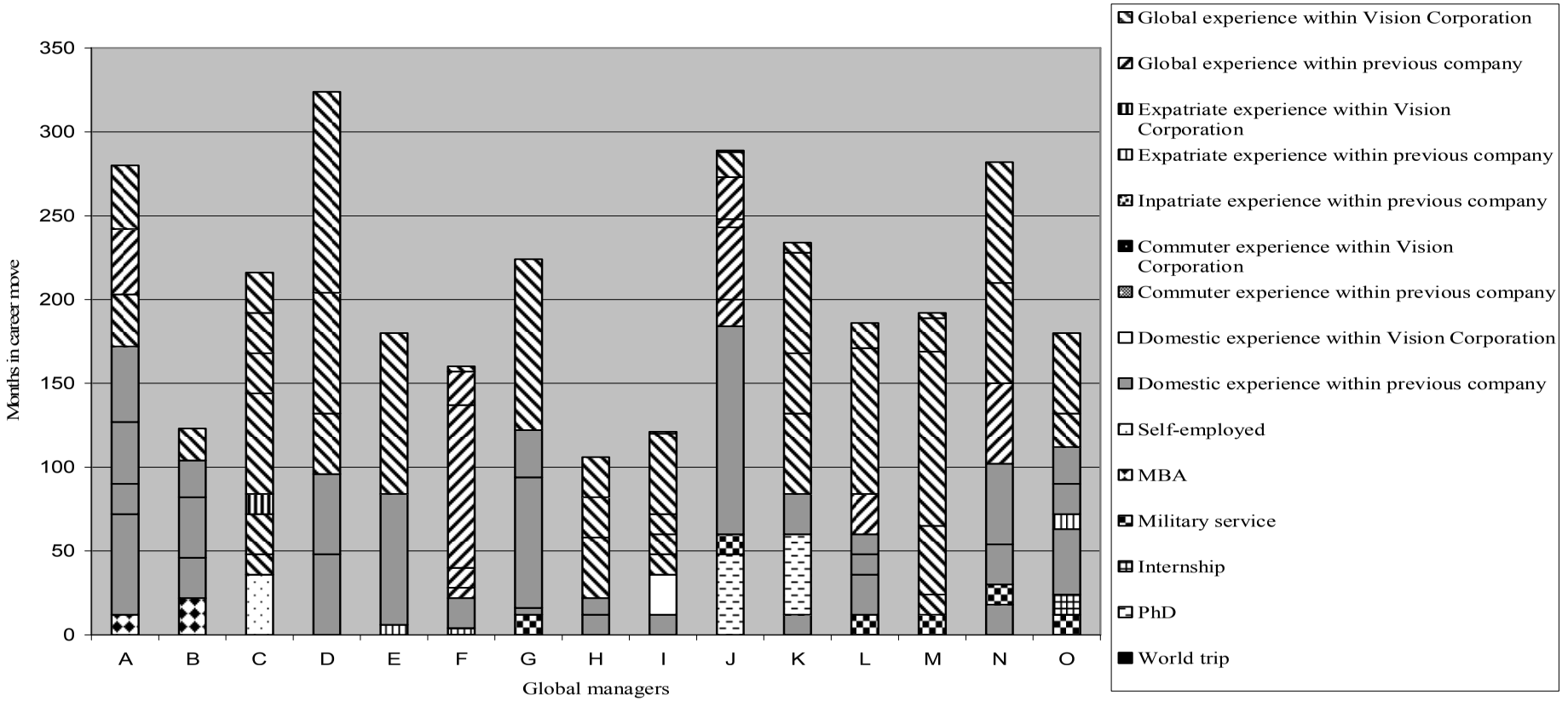


Figure 5 Career paths of global managers within Vision Corporation



Overall, we identified 330 career moves within our sample which referred to 1) career moves outside a company context (n=40): a PhD (n=7), MBA (n=8), internship (n=3), self-employment (n=4), world trip (n=1) and compulsory military service (n=17); and 2) career moves within a company context (n=290). In the latter group, we classified the career moves according to two criteria: career moves were made either within (n=156) or outside (n=134) the current organization and were local (n=102) or international (n=188) in nature. International moves include: systematic commuting between countries (n=4), relocation of one's professional base through an expatriate (from headquarters) experience (n=25) or inpatriate (towards headquarters) experience (n=6) and a global career move (n=153). This latter refers to a position as global manager having a worldwide responsibility. Based upon these types of career moves, we reconstructed for each global manager his/her career. Remarkable is that 22 global managers in our sample never had an expatriate, inpatriate or commuting experience, exclusively combining global and local career moves in their career, whereas 23 global managers combined an expatriate, inpatriate or commuting experience with global career moves.

HR-managers

In each organization in this study, we interviewed one or more HR manager(s) that enabled us to draw on another perspective when considering the HR practices within each organization. An overview of these interviewees and their backgrounds is presented in Table 4.

Table 4 An overview of HR managers interviewed in this study

Function and position	Gender	Corporation
Management Development Manager	M	Pharma
HR Manager Other European Countries	F	Pharma
Head of Management Development & Training Europe	M	Pharma
International Mobility Manager	F	Pharma
Business Unit HR Manager	F	View
Business Unit HR Manager	M	View
Corporate Compensation and Benefits Manager	F	View
Business Unit HR Manager	M	View
Human Resources Director	M	Vision

We started each interview by introducing our study and asking managers to introduce themselves and their position within the organization. The interview continued along a semi-structured interview scheme asking questions about 1) career management such as 'Does this organization have formal, institutionalized plans or procedures for career management?' and 'What are the criteria for development or promotion within this organization?'; and 2) international assignments such as 'Within this organization, do you see different types of international assignments?' and 'Does this organization value international experience for further career development?' We concluded the interview by questions such as 'What are the criteria according to you to be a successful global manager?' and 'Which opportunities do you see for the organization to better support this type of international work?' The interviews were conducted in 2005 and 2006 at the interviewees' offices and were tape-recorded and fully transcribed. Their length ranged from half an hour to one hour.

In addition, we asked HR-managers to rate the respondents in our study into three categories: 1) Retention. High potential for future career possibilities; 2) Retention. Competent person at current position; and 3) No explicit 'must' to retain

the person. Afterwards, we asked to comment on the choice for one of these categories. In both Pharma Corporation and Vision Corporation, the respective Management Development Manager and Human Resources Director rated all participants from his organization. In View Corporation however, participants were too widely spread across business units. In this case, the President Human Resources and Corporate Affairs provided us with contact details of all participants' hierarchical superiors to do this rating.

Strategic managers

Corresponding to the interviews with HR-managers, we included one or more strategic manager(s) of each organization as informants into this study. An overview of this group of participants in this study is presented in Table 5.

Table 5 An overview of strategic managers interviewed in this study

Function and position	Gender	Organization
General Manager Business Unit	M	Pharma
Director Global Medical Affairs	F	Pharma
Vice-President Chemical Technologies & Engineering	M	Pharma
Director Regulatory Affairs	F	Pharma
Business Unit President	M	View
President Europe, Middle-East, Africa & Latin America	M	View
Business Unit President	M	View
Senior Vice-President	M	View
CEO	M	Vision

In the case of strategic managers, each interview started by introducing the purpose of the study and asking respondents to introduce themselves and their position within the organization. The interview then continued using semi-structured questions about 1) the business strategy such as 'Which aspects of your business do you approach on a global scale?' and 'Which aspects of your business need a local approach?'; 2) the use

of international assignments to attain this business strategy such as 'When or in which matters, in your specific business, is chosen for Expatriate assignments?' and 'Who is being selected for this kind of assignment?'; and 3) future challenges in terms of strategy such as 'How do you feel the organization will be evolving in the near future?' and 'Do you see a shift in the use of these assignments?' Again, the interviews were conducted in 2005 and 2006 at the interviewees' offices and ranged in length from one hour to one and a half hour. They were tape-recorded and fully transcribed.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have introduced the interview study from which the empirical findings in this dissertation originate. As its main objective is to further explore the work and careers of global managers, we chose to apply a qualitative research design based on interviews that can provide a richness of information incorporating possible diversities and nuances. Based on theoretical reasoning, we determined the general context of this study as a transnational environment, in which global managers are most likely to operate.

Taking into account that all empirical studies in this dissertation originate from this interview study, the context and characteristics of the study will not be repeated in each of the chapters. Rather in each chapter, we will focus in the method section on the applied procedures of data analysis. In chapter 3, we draw from the questions that probe for personal experiences of global managers and analyze the resulting core narratives on the basis of a three-phase content analysis procedure. Chapter 4 draws from the 'generative narrative question' (Flick, 1998) in global managers' interviews that probed for their career history. In this chapter, the instances of career competency

accumulation derived from global managers' career stories were analyzed in the tradition of content analysis. Finally, chapter 5 draws on the results of the interviews with 38 managers who explicitly reflected on their ability to deal with cross-cultural interactions. In this case, the data were analyzed through template analysis.

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CHAPTER 3

WORLDWIDE COORDINATION IN A TRANSNATIONAL CONTEXT: NARRATIVES OF GLOBAL MANAGERS[3]

Abstract

This study extends our understanding of the notion of global manager by empirically examining their personal experiences as coordinators across multiple geographies and cultures. Based on in-depth interviews, we study narrative fragments of 45 global managers, identifying the most prominent issues in fulfilling the job of worldwide coordinator, the organizational context in which global managers operate, and the impact of their work on their personal life. The findings further indicate that global managers' experiences are characterized by three tensions: distance versus closeness, hierarchy versus culture, and work flexibility versus family equilibrium.

[3] This chapter, co-authored with Maddy Janssens, is currently under peer review at *Journal of World Business.*

Introduction

Due to large scale globalization of business, companies are changing their approach to global mobility and cross-border transfers. They no longer exclusively rely on traditional expatriate assignments but tend to make greater use of alternative forms of international work, such as short-term assignments, aspatial careerists, commuter assignments, awareness-building assignments, frequent flyer assignments and virtual assignments or teams (Collings, Scullion & Morley, 2007; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl & Kollinger, 2004; Roberts, Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Welch, Worm & Fenwick, 2003). Examining these alternative international assignments, previous international human resource management (IHRM) studies tend to contrast them with the expatriate assignment, pointing primarily to the difference in time spent in another country. While this difference is important, they however seem to neglect that some new types of international work also imply a difference in responsibility. As strategy scholars have pointed out, the responsibility of managers working internationally is shifting towards worldwide coordination, defining connections and interdependencies to integrate all actors and activities into a worldwide value-added network that contributes to the success of the MNC as a whole (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992, 2000; Galbraith, 2000; Holtbrügge, 2005; Martinez & Jarillo, 1989). However, with the exception of Adler and Bartholomew's (1992) introduction of the notion of transnationally competent managers already 15 years ago, IHRM research on this type of international work is lacking.

The overall purpose of this study is therefore to increase our understanding of transnationally competent managers (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992) whose responsibility is to establish worldwide coordination. Following strategic scholars (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992; Kedia & Mukherji, 1999; Pucik & Saba, 1998), we label

them ‘global managers.’ In specific, we examine how they themselves experience their international work as coordinators across geographies and cultures. To capture their personal perspective, we rely on in-depth interviews with 45 global managers of three organizations operating in a transnational environment. We choose this research approach for the following reasons. First, in IHRM literature, our understanding of new types of international work is until now mainly based upon conceptual discussions and insights from HR managers. This has led to several calls to study these phenomena from the perspective of managers themselves (e.g. Cappellen & Janssens, 2005; Pucik & Saba, 1998; Suutari, 2003). Second, although the notions of ‘global’ and ‘transnational’ are extensively discussed within the strategic literature (e.g. Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989, 2000; Galbraith, 2000; Prahalad & Doz, 1987; Yip, 1992), its implications for IHRM are less studied. With the exception of Adler and Bartholomew (1992), no studies explicitly deal with the responsibility of worldwide coordination. Rather, research is focused on senior managers’ global leadership or global mindset, discussing its attributes, skills and competences, and accordingly the need for cross-cultural training and development. This study therefore uses a qualitative research approach, suitable for exploring new concepts and perspectives (Daniels & Cannice, 2004; Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Doing so, this study contributes to the IHRM literature by extending our understanding of a new type of international work. It offers insights in how managers themselves experience the task of worldwide coordination through identifying the main issues expressed in their narrative fragments. These issues refer to three tensions - distance-closeness, hierarchy-culture, and work flexibility-family equilibrium - characterizing the nature of this type of international work.

The chapter is structured as follows. We start with a theoretical discussion on the notion of global manager. We then present our research methodology, introducing the three organizations in which we interviewed 45 global managers and discussing our narrative approach. In the findings, we illustrate the most prominent issues that global managers refer to in their narrative fragments. We reflect on these findings by discussing the tensions underlying worldwide coordination and conclude with implications for research and practice.

Theoretical background

Based on the strategy literature, we start this section by discussing the transnational business environment and strategy as it is the context in which worldwide coordination is mainly essential. Second, we review the literature on global or transnationally competent managers and identify three characteristics that tend to describe their role: their responsibility of worldwide coordination, the cultural scope of their work, and the way they collaborate with foreign colleagues.

Transnational context

Within transnational environments, businesses are increasingly subjected to simultaneous demands for national responsiveness, global efficiency, and worldwide innovation (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989, 2000; Galbraith, 2000; Prahalad & Doz, 1987). As a result, companies are confronted with the complex challenge to respond effectively to all the diverse and potentially conflicting local forces while at the same time integrating opportunities and learning experiences on a global scale to develop and maintain global competitive efficiency (Harzing, 2000). This challenge leads to the dissemination of value-generating activities across different centers of excellence,

turning each subsidiary into an organization's world source for a given product or expertise (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 2000). Accordingly, the centralized power of headquarters is distributed among subsidiaries, giving each unit a leadership role in its own expertise or product (Galbraith, 2000). This context has implications for both local and global management. On the one hand, a strong national subsidiary management is needed to sense and represent local customers' changing needs and the increasing pressures of host governments and regulatory agencies (Rosenzweig & Singh, 1991). On the other hand, a strong global management needs to be in place, establishing communication and coordination between units across geographical, cultural and functional boundaries (Galbraith, 2000) to identify worldwide customers, economies of scale and scope and exchange information, products and people (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989, 2000; Ghoshal & Nohria, 1993). With expertise being spread throughout the organization, the organization becomes an integrated network of distributed and interdependent resources and capabilities.

Role of global managers within a transnational context

Given the characteristics of a transnational environment, scholars (e.g. Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992; Kedia & Mukherji, 1999; Pucik & Saba, 1998) have started to discuss the appropriate mindsets, skills and competencies of managers that move an organization to an integrated and coordinated global network. We rely on this conceptual literature to identify three main characteristics of global managers, which we further contrast with expatriate managers.

Worldwide coordination

First, global managers need to achieve worldwide coordination through finding a balance between the simultaneous demands of global integration and national responsiveness (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992; Pucik & Saba, 1998). Not only are global managers expected to recognize opportunities and risks across national and functional boundaries, they also need to coordinate activities and link capabilities across these barriers (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992). Global managers therefore need to understand the complexities of managing an interdependent and complex global network (Kedia & Mukherji, 1999) and must be discrete when choosing to be locally responsive and when to emphasize global integration (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). Global managers are executives who can work across boundaries, both functional and cultural (Pucik & Saba, 1998), understanding the worldwide business environment from a global perspective (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). Overall, they are effective if they have developed the global mindset of an integrator, rather than operating as a domestically-oriented defender or controller (Kedia & Mukherji, 1999).

Such characterization is in contrast with that of expatriate managers, who tend to function as the interface between headquarters and a single foreign country, transferring knowledge and values from headquarters to subsidiaries (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Edström & Galbraith, 1977). While expatriate managers are socializing and integrating foreigners into the headquarters' national organizational culture (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992), global managers need to integrate all employees into a global organizational perspective.

Cultural scope of work

Second, global managers need to work with people from many cultures simultaneously. They need to form complex cultural understandings, not having the luxury of dealing with each country's issues on a separate and therefore sequential basis (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). In terms of cross-cultural skills, global managers are expected to tread smoothly and expertly within and between cultures and countries on a daily basis. They need to learn about many foreign cultures' perspectives and approaches to conducting business, be flexible and open minded towards a multitude of cultures, and have a broad cultural perspective and appreciation for cultural diversity (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Pucik & Saba, 1998).

Such cultural scope of work strongly contrasts with that of expatriate managers who work within a particular culture for a predetermined period of time. Expatriate managers are suggested to adapt to living in the country of their assignment, becoming experts on that culture (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Pucik & Saba, 1998). While expatriate managers approach the world from a single-country perspective, global managers have a transnational perspective characterized by knowledge and appreciation of many foreign cultures.

Collaboration with foreign colleagues

To capture the full benefit of integrated worldwide operations (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992) and create a culturally synergistic way of working (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992), it is argued that global managers need to interact with foreign colleagues worldwide on an equal basis. Rather than functioning from within the clearly defined hierarchy of headquarters, global managers are expected to overcome an ethnocentric mindset and develop an openness to and understanding of other perspectives,

selectively incorporating foreign values and practices into the global operations (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992).

This type of collaboration is in contrast with expatriate managers who tend to interact with foreign colleagues from within clearly defined hierarchies of structural and/or cultural dominance and subordination (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Pucik & Saba, 1998).

Data analysis

In this study, the data were generated by a semi-structured interview scheme, using open-ended questions that probe for personal experiences of global managers. In the first part of the interview, open questions asked for the main challenges ('What do you, working as a global manager, consider the most important challenges?'), advantages ('What do you consider the main advantages?') and disadvantages ('What do you consider the main disadvantages?'). Afterwards, more specific questions covered themes such as dealing with different cultures ('How do you handle cultural differences?'), working virtually ('How do you experience working with remote colleagues?') and personal life ('How does your family life fit in with this position?'). The transcripts of these interviews yielded narrative fragments that illustrate how global managers experience their international work.

The narrative fragments resulting from the semi-structured interviews were analyzed in a three-phase content analysis procedure (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Miles & Huberman, 1984; see Boudens, 2005; Butterfield, Trevino & Ball, 1996 for some examples). In a first phase, the narratives were broken down into core narratives or what Gioia and Sims (1986) defined as 'thought units.' Such core narratives range from a single phrase to a complete paragraph or page of text that captures separate,

but complete thoughts or ideas. For example, this is a narrative fragment from the interview with a vice-president worldwide sales and marketing at View Corporation:

> I travel a lot. I travel almost, let's say, 60 or 70% of my time. Next week, I will be in Japan for a week, and the week after in the US the whole week. Now, this afternoon, I will go to Germany, so I spend even 80% of my time outside. Because I believe that is the only way to have an impact on the organization. Videoconferencing is not enough and telephone calls, things like that are not enough, also. So I spend a lot of time outside. And it's hard because View Corporation is really strict on the travel policy. We never get business class tickets and never any compensation of weekends. So if I, I very often leave on Sunday evenings or if you work in the Middle East or countries where people work on Saturdays and Sundays, so it's never, I can never get these days back, so it's very hard.

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All core narratives were recorded in a Microsoft Excel sheet. Both authors separately ensured that virtually everything global managers said about their work was incorporated in the collection of thought units. The material excluded from the Microsoft Excel-sheet was what could be called side tracks (Butterfield et al., 1996), or material that had nothing to do with the topic of this study.

In the second, categorizing phase, we analyzed the core narratives for similarities in their content. They were compared to each other, identifying recurring issues and sorted into categories (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). As much as possible, we let the data speak for themselves and allowed the categories to emerge from the data

(Butterfield et al., 1996). In this phase, the goal was to minimize the differences between thought units within a category and maximize the differences between units in different categories (see Butterfield et al., 1996). The format of the Microsoft Excel-sheet was very helpful in this phase, allowing us to constantly compare and review the differences in and between categories by replacing core narratives through the copy/paste mechanism. We then assigned labels to each of these categories, aiming to capture the shared message or issue of the core narratives incorporated in the category. For example, the core narratives discussing the countries and cultures that global managers travel to and have contacts with were collected into a single category and labeled 'multicultural scope of work.' When this sort was completed by the first author, the core narratives were reshuffled and given to the second author along with the category descriptions. The second author used these categories to sort the core narratives again as a reliability check on the first sort (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The few instances in which there was disagreement were resolved by going back to the original interview texts and jointly identifying the most appropriate category.

Third, in the classifying phase, we searched for common themes among the categories emerging from our data (Agar & Hobbs, 1982). This resulted into three themes of higher-order abstraction: fulfilling the job of global manager, the organizational context, and personal life. For example, we labeled the first theme 'fulfilling the job of global manager' because the categories under this theme all refer to issues or challenges completing the work effectively.

Core narratives of global managers

In this section, we present the core narratives of global managers' experiences as worldwide coordinators. These core narratives primarily refer to three themes of experiences: fulfilling the job itself, the organizational context, and the relationship with personal life. For each of these themes, we discuss the most prominent issues that global managers refer to in their core narratives.

Fulfilling the job of global manager

A majority of the core narratives refers to global managers' experiences when fulfilling the job itself of worldwide coordinator. Within this theme, a first issue highlights the challenges inherent to the task of worldwide coordination. Throughout the interviews, developing a global mindset or making employees think beyond their local interests comes across as one of the most important and difficult challenges for global managers to accomplish. A worldwide sales and marketing manager working at View Corporation explains this challenge as follows:

> The biggest thing, the most difficult thing is to create a worldwide team, you know. And making people understand that by doing something local, they help the world. That's the first point. Second point, by doing something local, they may have an impact in another part of the world, because our customers are global. Because for example, I know Kakogawa in Japan, he is investing in Dubai for a big utility project, and the decision maker will be in Japan. And if the sales guy doesn't meet the decision maker in Japan, we will never get the order in Dubai. But how to convince the sales guy in Japan that he has to spend time on a project in which he will never see an order, because the order will come in Dubai. So many examples like that. Hundreds of examples. And that's the biggest challenge today, and that's why we need to be global, but not global as a sum of local entities, but global as one global team, thinking on global terms. That's for me the biggest challenge today and that's what I tell to every sales guy in every sales meeting, and that's one of the reasons, I think, why I am successful.

This global manager experiences the creation of a global mindset among his team members as most difficult. Coordinating business on a global scale, he is

confronted with motivating his team members to invest in actions that have no direct impact on their local business, but are important to accomplish business in other parts of the world. This global manager does so by emphasizing in every face-to-face meeting the global interests of the company. This is in line with Tichy's (1992) definition of a global mindset, suggesting that global managers need the ability to conceptualize complex geopolitical forces and assess how these forces impact business. Building an effective cross-cultural team, not only global managers themselves need this mindset, but they must be able to transpose it to their team members, empowering others to aim for a bigger and broader picture (Rhinesmith, 1993).

Another challenge inherent to the task of worldwide coordination that appears from global managers' core narratives is the difficulty of coordinating at a distance. As our interviewees are responsible for work that is remotely implemented, they experience a need to find appropriate ways to control. A worldwide quality manager at View Corporation recounts how working with remote colleagues requires checking everything:

> You are obliged to work in a very different way. […] If you need to get something done across borders, you need to send an e-mail, but in case one doesn't answer this e-mail, you can guess. Or he didn't bother, or he is overloaded, doesn't understand it, something which happens quite often, or he feels there is no need to answer, so you need to do it quite differently. You need to start calling him, and then he can still say yes, but in the end, you can guess whether he has done it or not. So you need to check, whereas when it is in your own surroundings, you can see it. So actually, you need to learn to get a buy-in everywhere, with all those people, from top to bottom and in the end to occupy yourself with the right issues in quite a different way. Each time you do something, you need to get these people to go along, that buy-in, saying explicitly where it is you want to go, check whether they have understood. It sounds very simple and sometimes quite stupid… but… And then in the end check whether they have implemented it in the right way.

Unable to see achievements across borders, this global manager finds himself wondering whether and how local colleagues have taken up the issue at hand. He

consequently experiences the need to constantly check -by phone if people don't react to e-mails- and to get a buy-in of everybody. All this involves being very explicit about what it is he wants and checking whether it is understood that way. Other global managers mention that this difficulty of control has an impact on themselves as they see themselves becoming "sort of paranoia", constantly wondering whether remote colleagues do what they have been asked, or they express how difficult it is not to become "a control freak." Indeed, personal coordination instruments such as checking the behavior of subordinates (Martinez & Jarillo, 1989) are acknowledged to be more efficient in complex MNC's such as the transnational, because they are more flexible to cope with growing functional specialization and resource interdependencies in transnational value-added networks (Harzing, 2000; Holtbrügge, 2005).

Considering the way in which global managers talk about the two above challenges -developing a global mindset and coordinating at a distance-, the interviews clearly indicate that the global managers under study fulfill their role as worldwide coordinators from a higher power position. Developing a global mindset, they are the ones who decide what the global strategy or mode of operation entails. For instance, one global manager indicates how he "introduces and installs the software, explaining to the locals how they should use it." Only one global manager indicates to "provide locals the opportunity to come with better propositions or alternatives." In addition, global managers under study clearly link the task of coordination to control or verifying whether "local employees have implemented it in the right way." They act as 'controllers' which is in contrast to Kedia and Mukherji's (1999) notion of 'integrators' and Adler and Bartholomew's (1992) conceptualization of a transnational competent manager, stressing that foreign colleagues are considered to be equals. While the conceptual studies on global managers argue that power is no

longer centred in a single headquarters (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992) and business leadership can originate from any part of the world (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992), the interviews in this study highlight that global managers operate from within a clearly defined hierarchy of strategic dominance from headquarters. Further, some interviewees explicitly refer to the advantages of working at headquarters instead of a local subsidiary in terms of having decision making power. For instance, a global clinical team leader at Pharma Corporation explains her motivation to seek a global position as follows:

> The international aspect in this company was my main driver to go for this position… On the one hand, of course, the job content, but not only the content in itself, but predominantly, the main driver was the opportunity to work on a more global scale. Having global responsibility. In the previous company, I was working for a local division. I had a lot of international contacts, but actually, I was executing what had been decided on a global scale. Whereas now, we decide, that's one of the reasons, we have the power. In this position, we have the power to make strategic choices or at least propose things when upper management is deciding.

Comparing her international contacts when working in a local subsidiary versus in headquarters, this global manager clearly favours the latter position. In her experience, working globally in a subsidiary means executing while in headquarters it means being involved in strategic decision-making.

A second issue highlighted in global managers' core narratives of fulfilling the job of worldwide coordinator is the multicultural scope of their work. Throughout the interviews, global managers emphasize how truly international their work is, crossing multiple geographical and cultural boundaries, both sequential and simultaneously. For instance, a worldwide chemical engineering manager at Pharma Corporation describes the international nature of his work as follows:

> I just got a phone call today from India, yesterday, I had a videoconference with Switzerland and last week, I was in the US and in the US I had to deal with some Japanese problems. […] And I got the opportunity to meet people from India, people from Japan, people from the US, people from all the

> Western Europe, even Eastern Europe, so I, for me it is what I call to work in an international environment.

In line with Adler and Bartholomew's (1992) characterization of a transnational manager, this fragment clearly indicates that global managers deal with multiple cultures, often simultaneously. Even when travelling to a country, there is no luxury to focus on the particular culture at hand, as issues from other countries that need to be dealt with continue to occur.

However, although working very international, the core narratives also indicate that the multicultural contacts do not generate in-depth knowledge of each culture. On the contrary, the multitude of cultures goes along with short-term visits and cursory contacts, preventing a thorough understanding of cultural differences. A director global product management at View Corporation explains:

> If you fly in and out, most of the time these are very short visits, the cultural awareness is most definitely important, but is not stimulated by flying in and out.

Travelling to many different countries, this global manager considers short visits to hinder cultural awareness even though he finds cultural knowledge important when working with foreign cultures. This lack of in-depth cultural knowledge is especially emphasized by those global managers who previously completed an expatriate assignment. They point out the difference between a global or expatriate manager in terms of cultural immersion, as illustrated by the words of a worldwide sales and marketing manager at View Corporation:

> When you are an expat, you are in the middle, it is much more extreme, the adjustment and confrontation with other cultures then when you are in a global position. There is a huge difference, you can travel a lot, and that is what I do now, but what does it entail? There is quite some difference, it goes from airport to airport, to meeting room and to the hotel and from the hotel back home, … where the local culture, except for the people you see, and those are people from your own company, because they are internal meetings, that have some sort of common culture, a corporate culture, you notice only little of foreign cultures. Whereas when you are an expat, you are there 24 hours a day

> and you really live there, that's when you notice what it's like to live in a different culture. Travelling confronts you much less with other cultures, so the experience is much less intense.

In line with conceptual characterizations of global managers (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Pucik & Saba, 1998), this fragment clearly indicates that managers with a worldwide responsibility are no experts in a single foreign culture. The way travels and meetings are organized tends to prevent an in-depth contact with foreign cultures. Furthermore, the core narratives suggest that global managers not even learn about the different foreign cultures' perspectives and approaches to conducting business, as theoretically suggested (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). In some instances, global managers go along with the most obvious cultural artifacts. For instance, a business unit vice-president at View Corporation explains this approach as follows:

> And you need to eat with chopsticks in China, and eat burgers with a large dollop of mustard in the States and have large beers. And this is not blasé, but I feel for myself that I have a sense of cultures. How could I express that? With an American, you need to stroll along and say Yeah, great and Wow! Whereas with Germans, you need to yell along. In a discussion, you need to raise your voice, and in Japan you need to go along and be quiet and peaceful. With the Chinese, you need to laugh and joke along. And that is my, I don't really bother, I don't even try to understand it, because I feel there is no use. For example, in the States, you need to go see a baseball game; you can't possibly understand how it can become such a circus. You can't even begin to imagine. […] I don't have the time to try and understand. Just let yourself go with the flow.

Working across multiple foreign cultures, this global manager finds himself lacking the time to try to understand all cultures thoroughly. As he feels that there is no use in trying to gain in-depth knowledge, he learns about the most prominent cultural artifacts from his cursory contacts with remote colleagues. Other interviewees mainly point to the tactic of "putting yourself or at least your own culture as low profile" when dealing with other cultures. As they cannot increase their knowledge of *other* cultures, they de-centre their *own* culture to be culturally effective. These core

narratives, in which global managers acknowledge their lack of in-depth cultural knowledge but demonstrate their awareness of cultural differences, are in line with Earley and Ang's suggested meta-cognitive component of cultural intelligence (2003) which refers to an individual's cultural consciousness and awareness during interactions with those who have different cultural backgrounds.

Third, global managers' core narratives about fulfilling the job of worldwide coordinator refer to the reality of having to work not only face-to-face but also through virtual communication. Given the nature of their work and its multicultural scope, global managers need to rely on virtual communication tools such as e-mail, videoconferencing and teleconferencing to interact with colleagues and subordinates. Talking about these different communication tools, our interviewees seem to have developed an understanding of the pros and cons of each tool. For instance, a global product group director at View Corporation tends to rely on teleconferencing and desktop sharing:

> For example, videoconferencing is something we do not have a lot of faith in. We work a lot by teleconferencing. I think that today, everyone in the lab has a headset, so we work by teleconferencing through the internet, desktop sharing, being able to see the data in a way. So you don't always have to organize a meeting between individuals, it helps.

Working by teleconferencing and desktop sharing, this global manager feels less need to have face-to-face meetings. Further, as these communication tools compress space and time, being able to see the data worldwide at the same time, they enable this manager to respond rapidly to emerging worldwide business issues. Overall, our interviewees argue the importance of selecting the right communication tool for the task at hand and being aware of the communication pitfalls of each tool. For instance, a global director of corporate marketing at View Corporation formulates the following advice regarding the use of e-mail:

> E-mail is actually a bad tool, because you can do anything with it. Worldwide, you can chat with everyone, but you don't get to see each other and e-mail is often been used for the wrong reasons. So I try to keep that in mind, not to send e-mails in the sense of 'if no one answers within a week, I assume everyone agrees.'

Despite the advantages of virtual communication, all global managers agree that regular face-to-face contact remains necessary. For instance, a global R&D director at Vision Corporation expresses:

> In specific, in case of partnerships in Asia, I think you need to follow-up rather tightly, so that is why I believe that a system of e-mailing, teleconferencing and conference calls, it helps, but is not sufficient. There is a large amount of technical follow-up that slits up, but especially the human follow-up is hard to do. So conflicts that breed in your Asian team, you can hardly clear them from here. We have an R&D-team there, but the team is also embedded into a local Hong Kong-organization, so there are pieces of operations, marketing and sales, so this whole lot needs to keep running smoothly. So that's why it is important to frequently be there.

This global manager points to the need for face-to-face contacts in the case of complex technical follow-up as well as conflictual interpersonal issues. His personal experience is in line with insights of studies on global virtual team dynamics (Maznevski & Chudoba, 2000) arguing that short interactions using various media must follow a defining beat of regular face-to-face meetings, depending on the level of task interdependence and the degree of shared view and strength of personal relationships. Such regular face-to-face meetings further instigate global managers to organize their work accordingly, systematically collecting strategic issues that ask for face-to-face discussions. For instance, a director of global research at Pharma Corporation keeps a second agenda of issues she prefers to address face-to-face:

> It goes from acquisition of information, negotiation of projects, finalization of projects, discussions on touchy contents, things for which you prefer to have people face-to-face to discuss rather than sending a mail around. So I am accumulating things that I need to discuss with people so I'm waiting to have them face-to-face.

Finally, a fourth issue in global managers' core narratives on fulfilling their

job is the crucial importance of efficiently organizing their work. The need to do so stems from the time differences that need to be taken into account. For instance, a director of global product management at View Corporation explains how working on a worldwide scale implies a 24 hour working day:

> The challenge is predominantly the time differences. As I said this morning, you never stop. At night, you deal with the US till late in the evening, and in the morning, when you switch on your mobile phone, you are in contact with China. So in the end, a working day is no longer a reference of 8 hours, but becomes a reference of 24 hours. And okay, that needs to be managed, because otherwise, it turns out wrong.

Temporally coordinating and scheduling his work along these different time zones, this global product manager discusses how the nature of his job extends his working days to a reference of 24 hours. While the literature on new international mobility practices has discussed temporal coordination in international work through virtual communication tools (e.g. Montoya-Weiss, Massey & Song, 2001; Welch, Worm & Fenwick, 2003), it has not yet pointed to its implications in terms of efficiently organizing work, a challenge that the global managers under study strongly experience.

Efficiently organizing work is also needed because of frequent travels. Global managers narrate how this aspect of their job creates work back-log, experienced as one of the most important disadvantages of being a global manager. For instance, a business unit vice-president at View Corporation expresses:

> With regard to my work, obviously the most important disadvantage is that you need to work at multiple locations simultaneously. So you leave your work in the home office, but when you return, you will most definitely find a large pile of things that you yourself need to deal with.

In line with studies examining the impact of frequent business travel (Collings et al., 2007), this fragment indicates that a main challenge for global managers is to catch up on their work back-log when returning to their office, especially when their

companies fail to allow time to reduce the work load following frequent business travels.

The organizational context

The second theme refers to global managers' experiences of the organizational context in which they operate as worldwide coordinators. A first issue highlighted in their narratives refers to the moment they became a global manager. Several interviewees indicate that there was never a formal question of the organization asking them whether they were willing to take up the position of worldwide coordinator, as the words of a business unit vice-president at View Corporation illustrate:

> The international aspect was inherently part of the position. In fact, there has never been a formal moment of acceptance of an international position or the international aspect of this position. What I do remember is the first time that I was asked to travel, I found that very obvious. Our customers are global customers, so you go along with that.

This global manager recounts how his position became more and more international, following the globalisation of customers. He never experienced a formal initiation process, rather a gradual evolution towards international responsibilities.

For other global managers, the switch to a global position was more sudden. For instance, a worldwide purchase director at View Corporation explains that he became a global manager because of different acquisitions:

> We could no longer grow vertically in our products, so then the question came up of how to expand geographically. So then there was the China-acquisition, and the acquisition of Logan and then later that year, December 2003, Sacramento, so California. From one day to the next, it was a Saturday morning; I suddenly became a worldwide operations manager. And then I was thinking, how are we going to do this? It was completely unprepared…

This global manager points out that a strategic decision of the organization initiated a change in his responsibility, without considerations of him being

sufficiently skilled and prepared for the change. In general, the interviews point to the lack of a formal organizational process in which potential candidates are consulted on their willingness and competencies to become global managers. Although recruitment and selection has been recognized as key for successful completion of alternative forms of international assignments, earlier research already indicated that formal selection is rarely practiced in these cases (Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm, 2005). Rather, the person qualified for the task at hand is often self-evident to the organization.

A second and related issue in this theme is global managers' experience of lack of training and development to support them in becoming a successful worldwide coordinator. For instance, a global alliance manager of Pharma Corporation expresses:

> I don't even think that the global organization understands or there is no full active management of developing people to take on global responsibilities. But there are people holding global jobs that have never been outside their home town. So is that good or bad? I think it's bad… They need, if they are going to have that level of job, they need to be able to identify the regions to be with, the market, and the customers.

This interviewee strongly questions whether people can become a global manager without having any international experience and/or training. He argues the need to have at least a basic awareness of regional differences in terms of markets and customers.

Further talking about training and development, many global managers contrast the lack of support for global managers with the special treatment for expatriate managers. A vice-president worldwide sales and marketing at View Corporation describes the difference as follows:

> Within View Corporation, there is a lot of experience with expat packages that are needed to support expatriates in terms of schooling, moving, View Corporation has that experience. For global managers, more cultural awareness training would be useful, should be possible. At a certain point in time, yes.

This interviewee clearly disapproves of his company's lack of support for global managers, especially because of their experience in expatriate management. In line with the previous quote, he points to the necessity of cultural awareness training. These experiences reflect recent findings in the IHRM literature, indicating that cross-cultural training is used and valued in case of traditional expatriate assignments, but absent in alternative forms of international assignments, suggesting they are expected to assume this responsibility themselves (Mayerhofer et al., 2004). Such responsibility is taken among our interviewees as they themselves tend to organize cross-cultural training, not only for themselves but also for their team. A global product group director at View Corporation describes:

> First of all, you need to be aware of the cultural differences. Awareness is very important, so we try to organize it in our group, bringing people together and pointing out cultural differences and explaining to them what that means in daily life. It is a very tough process, these last few years, every year we try to do something about it, but it remains one of the largest obstacles.

Finally, global managers' core narratives highlight the need for logistic support when going on business trips. Throughout the interviews, many examples were given of how global managers themselves had to take care of administrative and health issues such as travel insurance, additional life insurance when going to a country in war, or vaccinations. A worldwide purchase director experienced the following incident at View Corporation:

> No, not at all. In fact, we are left to ourselves. A very good example, when one of my people left to China for a year, for the first time, so we were already operating there for a year, I got a complaint from the HR department that I hadn't organized a vaccination for this man. And afterwards, which is good, I asked them, is this compulsory? So they said to me of course it is compulsory. And I was like well, I have been travelling to China for a year now, I left right after the SARS-epidemic. And no one told me I needed a vaccination? So support packages? Not at all! We could even go to China during the SARS-epidemic, but then we weren't allowed to enter the company for ten days upon return. So in that sense, no support at all. On that level, the HR department could play a much better role.

This quote clearly indicates that global managers expect pro-active support of the HR department in organizing travel. Recent literature has acknowledged this lack of appropriate HR policies to support alternative forms of international assignments (Collings et al., 2007), having cost-driven travel policies (Oddou, Mendenhall & Ritchie, 2000) and leaving the burden of frequent travelling to employees and their families (Mayerhofer et al., 2004).

Personal life

The third and final theme refers to global managers' experiences of how their work impacts personal life. A first issue highlighted in these core narratives is the enormous impact of long working hours and frequent business trips on their family life. The 24-hour working day of global managers makes a balance between work and family quite difficult. A global market director at View Corporation describes it as follows:

> For my family, it is sometimes difficult, it can be a heavy burden on the family. Sometimes it fits, sometimes it doesn't. We need to balance these… As a global manager, you have no problem, at least I don't have any problem to work 24 hours a day, doing business 7 days a week. Because it never ends. So to balance this with the personal side is sometimes quite difficult.… But I think you can only do this if… Behind every strong man, there is a strong woman. I don't want to reframe it to a gender issue, absolutely not, but the family has to make the same choice.

This global manager suggests that a balance between work and family is only possible because his spouse and family support his choice of working long hours. Going back to the traditional expatriate literature, families have been found to have a determining role in the success of an expatriate assignment, facilitating expatriate's cross-cultural adjustment by providing a stable home situation (Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall & Stroh, 1999). In a similar vein, our findings indicate a supporting role

of families for global management positions, accepting global managers' 24-hour working day.

Our interviewees provide similar core narratives when talking about the impact of frequent travels on their personal life. Their absence requires a lot of organization at home. A global product manager at Vision Corporation recounts a particular incident:

> It becomes a lot easier once the children grow up, but okay, it is not simple, especially for the spouse that is left behind at home. My wife has to travel once and a while, so it happens that we get in trouble. Last year, I was in Japan and I was about to return from Japan on Saturday morning, after which my wife had to leave on Saturday evening. And the plane was broke, and it would take one or two days to fix it, they didn't know upfront. So I was stuck in Japan while my wife had to leave. So what about the children? In such case, you need to find a solution which is what we did; we took our children to a babysitter. So my wife left at night, and I got home the next morning, after which I could pick them up. So actually, our children had no parents for one day, without knowing, because they were too small.

This quote illustrates how frequent travel and its possible unexpected events may cause problems at home. Talking about these difficulties at home, global managers tend to make a difference between the impact of their absence on younger and older children. They seem to agree that children experience more difficulties with their absence when growing up. At the same time, however, some global managers point to their autonomy and freedom in organizing work, enabling them to minimize the impact of work on personal life. This flexibility allows them to plan travels around important personal events, as a global market director at View Corporation expresses:

> When you are travelling, the only thing is that you need to plan more things. And when possible, you can, there is an important birthday or party, you can always plan to be back that day.

Finally, global managers' core narratives about work and personal life refer to the stability that a global management position can bring. This issue comes across the core narratives when global managers compare an expatriate assignment with a global

management position. Global managers who once were expatriates tend to experience their job as a global manager to be offering stability as the whole family is not required to move. The same global manager from the previous fragment recounts:

> I think yes, the main difference as an expat is, I think the difficulty to integrate, to actually move your whole life and adjust yourself. That's difficult, the adjustment and yes, your new friends… Everything is new. But actually, once you're on site, I think it can be a heavy burden because you, okay, I am talking about Miami, always nice weather and other nice things, but you can be positioned somewhere else where your complete social life changes.

This interviewee clearly experiences an expatriate assignment as changing his whole life, both family and social life. Other global managers recount similar experiences, sometimes even telling that they accepted a position as global manager because it allows them to work internationally while the family is able to maintain their home base. Such core narratives relate to the expatriate literature that has characterized an expatriate assignment as a disruption in the personal and social life of the family (Forster, 2000). Alternative forms of international assignments are considered to have less impact on the partner's career and children's education (Tahvanainen et al., 2005). In that sense, the literature supports our interviewees' view that a global management position provides more stability in personal life compared to an expatriate assignment.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to enrich our understanding of managers whose responsibility is to establish worldwide coordination. Based on 45 in-depth interviews, we identified the main issues that global managers experience when completing this type of international work. Based on these findings, we now discuss three tensions that appear to characterize global managers' work and life.

Distance - Closeness

The first tension that emerges from the interviews in this study points to global managers' experiences of distance versus their need for closeness. On the one hand, global managers' work is characterized by distance, containing two elements of virtuality: geographical dispersion and electronic dependence (Gibson & Gibbs, 2006). This experience of distance came across when global managers discussed the different locations of colleagues across the world, their reliance on virtual communication tools, and lack of in-depth cultural knowledge. Working across many different geographical locations across the world, global managers talked about their not-knowing what's going on, and their corresponding tendency to control or check the work of remote colleagues. This feeling of distance is further strengthened as global managers need to rely on virtual communication tools. These tools lack message clarity and communication richness (e.g. Gibson & Gibbs, 2006), that enhances the difficulties encountered by global managers working at a distance. In addition, the multitude of different locations and cultures together with the cursory nature of the contact makes global managers aware that their cultural knowledge is and probably will remain limited, further strengthening the feeling of distance.

On the other hand, however, global managers experienced a need for closeness or developing close relationships through which they can understand others' perspective of appreciating the world (Aron, Mashek & Aron, 2004). This need for close relationships was referred to by global managers when they talked about the need for cultural knowledge and regular face-to-face contact. The interviewees pointed to the necessity of having at least some cultural awareness and understanding of foreign colleagues' perspectives on reality in order to work successfully. In a similar vein, global managers in this study aimed to create more close relationships

through frequent travels. Regular face-to-face contacts were experienced as crucial when needing to discuss complex strategic issues or personal conflictual relationships.

Global managers in this study also indicated ways in which they dealt with this tension between distance and closeness. They were especially concerned with building a personal relationship through de-centering their own cultural framework and/or learning about others' most obvious cultural artifacts and behaviors. They explicitly questioned the possibility as well as desirability of understanding each culture in-depth. Rather than increasing their cultural knowledge, our interviewees were mainly concerned with establishing personal contacts. This strategy resembles to a certain extent the process of negotiating reality (Friedman & Berthoin Antal, 2005). Instead of building a broad repertoire of cultural knowledge preparing for cross-cultural interactions, negotiating reality suggests to consider each situation separately, treating it as a unique event with unique participants who bring their own expectations and repertoires of behaviors.

Hierarchy - Culture

A second tension that emerges from the core narratives in this study points to the hierarchical versus cultural nature of a global management position. On the one hand, a global management position has a hierarchical component, pointing to a specialization of discretionary decision-making responsibilities, authority and reporting lines (Child, 2005). This hierarchical meaning came across when global managers talked about the need to develop a global mindset among their foreign colleagues, their decision making power in headquarters, and the process through which they became a global manager. Global managers concentrated on moving their coworkers in the local units to think beyond their local interests, focusing on the

overall interest of the company and commonalities across many markets. While the creation of such global mindset can be non-hierarchical, the global managers in this study used terms such as 'implementation,' 'right way' or 'explaining to locals.' Such terms have a hierarchical connation as they place the source of decision making and authority in the global management position. In addition, the hierarchical nature of a position as global manager in this study is strengthened by the interviewees' location at headquarters, which they considered the highest strategic decision-making body within the organization. Further, not only did global managers attach a hierarchical meaning to their job, also the companies they work for do so. The ad-hoc process through which our interviewees were appointed to global manager indicated that either their career growth in a certain functional domain or a geographical extension of their position were the main deciding factors. This suggests that organizations primarily assessed a person's potential to work globally by his/her hierarchical position.

On the other hand, however, global managers experience a cultural component to their job as they talked about the differences in artifacts, values, norms and meanings across different countries and cultures (Hofstede, 1980, 1991; Schein, 1985). This cultural component arose when the interviewees talked about the multicultural scope of their job and the organization not providing the necessary cross-cultural training. Working across multiple cultures, global managers in this study pointed to the need for at least a minimum level of cultural awareness and criticized the lack of organizational support, leading to self-organized sessions of cross-cultural training.

This tension between hierarchy and culture in global managers' work very much resembles the strategic versus cultural perspective on global mindset (Levy,

Beechler, Taylor & Boyacigiller, 2007). Global managers' hierarchical experience of worldwide coordination seems to go along with a strategic perspective on global mindset which highlights the strategic complexity of globalization, requiring high cognitive abilities and information-processing capabilities (e.g. Jeannet, 2000; Tichy, Brimm, Charan & Takeuchi, 1992). Their cultural experience is in line with a cultural perspective on global mindset that focuses on cultural heterogeneity, requiring cultural self-awareness and openness to other cultures (e.g. Maznevski & Lane, 2004; Perlmutter, 1969). In our study, a hierarchical and strategic perspective on global managers' work tends to dominate the cultural perspective. Global managers and their organizations mainly considered worldwide coordination to be the responsibility of a person in a high power position, able to assess the complex forces of globalization. While the cultural component is acknowledged by global managers, they seem to experience it mainly as a problem rather than an opportunity to create a cultural synergistic way of working.

Work flexibility – Family equilibrium

A final tension that emerges from the interviews in this study refers to the flexibility needed to work as a global manager versus the equilibrium aimed for in family life. On the one hand, the work of a global manager is characterized by flexibility which is temporal and locational in nature (Reilly, 1998). Such flexibility came across when global managers discussed their long working hours and frequent business trips. Working across different time zones, global managers indicated a required flexibility in terms of working hours. Communicating with remote colleagues, they work beyond regular local office hours, with working days becoming a reference of 24 hours. In a similar vein, flexibility is required due to the frequency of business travels. Global

managers display locational flexibility, working from multiple locations besides their home office.

On the other hand, however, global managers aim for equilibrium in their family life, being an individual embedded in a family and a community (Eaton & Bailyn, 2000). This family equilibrium is reflected in our findings when global managers talked about the importance of their family life. They experienced the need to be present at important family events, especially when children grow up. In comparison to their earlier expatriate assignments, some interviewees experienced their global management position as less demanding on their family life, as it enabled them to maintain a stable home base in which they as well as their spouse and children could continue their work, education, and social life.

The tension between work flexibility and family equilibrium further indicates the degree of global managers' work/life balance or degree to which an individual is able to simultaneously balance the temporal, emotional and behavioral demands of both paid work and family responsibilities (Hill, Hawkins, Ferris & Weitzman, 2001). In a few cases, interviewees expressed such balance due to their autonomy and freedom to organize work. Autonomy allows global managers to organize work around important personal events, minimizing the impact of long working hours and frequent business trips on their family life. However, in other cases we found evidence of a work-family conflict, in which role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Such conflicts arise when global managers' work takes precedence over their family life, generating additional exigencies on the family.

Conclusion

This empirical study on global managers' narrative fragments extends our understanding of new types of international work. Focusing on worldwide coordination as a new type of responsibility in a transnational context, the study has identified the main issues and tensions that managers themselves experience to be crucial aspects of this type of international work. To conclude, we reflect on the limitations, possible avenues for future research, and practical implications.

The limitations of this study are related to the nature of narratives and the location of respondents at headquarters. The narrative fragments of global managers formed the basis for identifying and exploring a number of relevant themes in global managers' work. Although rich in character, narratives have the principal drawback of being self-reported and thus subjective recounted experiences rather than accurate information or facts about events (Gabriel, 2000). Interpretations of the results, therefore, have to be made carefully, considering that the data are global managers' perceptions of reality. A second limitation refers to our sample. Global managers in this study were located at headquarters, whereas the conceptual literature suggests that global managers can originate from any part of the globe (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992). Limiting our sample this way increased the homogeneity of the sample population, allowing for more generalizability towards this specific population. However, the specificity should be kept in mind when interpreting the results. For example, the prominence of decision-making and authority in global managers' experience might originate from the interviewees' location at headquarters. Consequently, global managers' location within the transnational network should be taken into account when comparing to other samples of global managers.

A possible avenue for future research is to extend this first empirical study on managers whose responsibility is to establish worldwide coordination. As earlier work on global managers was predominantly conceptual in nature, future research may benefit from broadening the sample to confirm, modify and extend the various elements that arose from our study. For example, future research may want to examine more thoroughly the tensions experienced by global managers with the aim of developing a framework of organizational support. Afterwards, additional quantitative research could test the relevance of each organizational support practice, determining the most effective policies in supporting global managers. Another example of extending this study is to focus more in-depth on family issues, further developing our understanding of the impact of a global management position on the family and the employees' work/life balance.

To conclude, this study offers insights for developing organizational support practices for this type of international work. Taking into account the ways in which global managers experience their work, the study suggests three types of organizational practices. First, a challenge inherent to global managers' task is to integrate different local perspectives into a coherent global perspective. This suggests the desirability of offering training on negotiation and conflict resolution to support global managers in reaching the overall goal of their position. Second, the use of virtual communication tools suggests the need for organizations to train their global managers on the characteristics of these tools. Knowing the advantages and disadvantages of a range of communication tools will help global managers to assess which tools are most appropriate for which purpose. Finally, our findings suggest that global managers need additional support in the practical organization of their work. Rather than a pure cost-driven focus, global managers suggest pro-active support from

HRM, offering country-specific information and appropriate life insurance and health care services.

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CHAPTER 4

GLOBAL MANAGERS' CAREER COMPETENCIES[4]

Abstract

This study investigates the career competencies of global managers. Based on in-depth interviews with 45 global managers, or managers having worldwide coordination responsibility, we empirically examine the career competencies of this specific sample of international workers: knowing-why, knowing-how and knowing-whom career competencies. The findings have implications for both the career and international HR literature. They highlight the differences between expatriates' and global managers' career competency profiles and further extend the current conceptual and empirical knowledge on the career competency framework. The study concludes by discussing its limitations, while pointing out avenues for future research and managerial implications.

[4] This chapter is co-authored with Maddy Janssens and under peer review at *Career Development International*.

Introduction

Over the past 15 years, careers have increasingly been conceptualized as an accumulation of capital through which individuals can facilitate their own career development (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; Inkson & Arthur, 2001; Jones & DeFillippi, 1996; Jones & Lichtenstein, 2000). In this context, the career competency framework is identified, consisting of knowing-why, knowing-how and knowing-whom career competencies (Lichtenstein & Mendenhall, 2002). These have become increasingly popular within the boundaryless career literature (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994, 1996; Jones & DeFillippi, 1996; Sturges, Simpson & Altman, 2003). Yet little research exists on the content of these career competencies. Most empirical studies have considered the accumulation of these competencies as a secondary finding. Instead of examining research questions on the nature of career competencies, they reflected on their findings taking a career perspective. For example, when examining the cross-cultural adjustment of American expatriates, Tung (1998) found that they valued the skills gained from these assignments. Recent studies that focus on career competencies tend to examine them as predictors of career success (Eby, Butts & Lockwood, 2003; Kuijpers, Schyns & Scheerens, 2006) or outcomes of career investments (Arthur, DeFillippi & Jones, 2001; DeFillippi, Arthur & Parker, 2003) or project-based learning (Jones & Lichtenstein, 2000), still considering career competencies as an antecedent or consequence. Only a few studies focus on the nature of individual career competencies themselves (e.g. Dickmann & Harris, 2005; Sturges et al., 2003). For example, Sturges and colleagues (2003) examine the value of MBA programs for acquiring career competencies and Dickmann and Harris (2005) examine the effects of international assignments in terms of career competencies.

Given the explorative nature of their research, both studies call to further develop knowledge about the career competency framework.

This study aims to further develop our understanding of the career competency framework by exploring the career competencies of one specific type of international work, e.g. global managers. Studies in International Human Resource Management (IHRM) (Harvey, 1998; Peltonen, 1997; Suutari, 2003) are increasingly pointing to the career challenges of working internationally, especially now that the nature of international work is becoming more flexible and alternative forms of international working are a growing aspect of global staffing (Cappellen & Janssens, 2005; Scullion & Collings, 2005). However, recent studies examining global or international careers continue to focus on expatriates and their corresponding repatriation process rather than sampling managers fulfilling new types of international work such as global managers, managers on awareness-building assignments, commuters, business travelers and members of SWAT-teams (Collings, Scullion & Morley, 2007).

This chapter addresses the previous research gaps by examining the career competencies of global managers. Following previous conceptual definitions (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992; Kedia & Mukherji, 1999; Pucik & Saba, 1998), we consider a global manager to be a manager 'having a position with worldwide coordination responsibility', 'understanding business from a worldwide perspective', 'balancing local and potentially contradictory demands in the global environment' and 'being able to work with multiple cultures simultaneously.' Through a qualitative study generating career stories of 45 global managers, we explore the career competencies of global managers. Doing so, this study contributes to the IHRM literature by empirically examining the career competencies of this specific sample of international workers. It offers insights in how global managers

themselves assess the career benefits of their position in terms of career competency accumulation and how this differs from the career competencies gained from expatriate assignments. Furthermore, this study extends our current conceptual and empirical knowledge on the career competency framework.

This chapter starts by reviewing the literature on career competencies and IHRM studies that discuss the career correlates of international assignments. Drawing on the results of a larger interview study, the next section presents the data analysis used to analyze global managers' career stories. Then, we discuss the findings of this analysis, identifying the career competencies of global managers. In the discussion section, we present the main implications for IHRM theory on new international work as well as for career theory. We conclude by reflecting on the limitations of this study, pointing to future research avenues, and presenting managerial implications.

Theoretical background

Within the boundaryless career literature, three key forms of career competency have been identified: knowing-why, knowing-how and knowing-whom (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994, 1996). In what follows, we discuss the theoretical meaning of career competencies as well as the results of IHRM studies, linking international assignments to one of these three career competencies. Given the lack of research that focuses on career competencies themselves, we also review studies that refer indirectly to career competencies, as a secondary finding.

Knowing-why competencies

Knowing-why competencies relate to career motivation, personal meaning and identification (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994). They provide individuals energy, a sense

of purpose and identification with the world of work and allow them to decouple their identity from their current employer in order to remain alert to new possibilities and career experiences (Arthur, Inkson & Pringle, 1999). These competencies relate to career clarity, insight and confidence (Sturges et al., 2003), motivational energy and self-assurance through which individuals can pursue a desired career path (Inkson & Arthur, 2001).

Previous IHRM studies show that global managers[5] or repatriates' intrinsic motivation for an overseas assignment refers to a search for international challenges and learning experiences (Suutari, 2003) as well as personal and/or professional development (Bossard & Peterson, 2005; Dickmann & Harris, 2005; Reiche, 2006). However, these intrinsic motivations were often found to be complemented by extrinsic factors (Clegg & Gray, 2002; Mayrhofer & Scullion, 2002; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Shen & Edwards, 2004) and a continued focus on (organizational) career progression (Moore, 2006; Peltonen, 1998; Shen & Edwards, 2004). In the case of self-directed expatriates and self-initiated foreign experience, studies show values and motivations such as career and money to be only of secondary importance after primary motivations such as adventure/travel, life change and family (Myers & Pringle, 2005; Richardson & Mallon, 2005). Corresponding knowing-why competencies gained from self-initiated foreign experiences were self-confidence, self-development, independence, autonomy, flexibility and adaptability (Myers & Pringle, 2005).

[5] Suutari (2003) conceptualizes a global manager as having multiple expatriate assignments, which is very different from our definition of a global manager.

Knowing-how competencies

Knowing-how competencies refer to career-relevant skills and job-related knowledge which accumulates over time and contributes to both the organization's and the individual's knowledge base (Bird, 1996; DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994). They are reflected in individual job descriptions and contribute to the development of a broad and flexible skill base that is transportable across organizational and occupational boundaries (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996; Gunz, Evans & Jalland, 2000).

Previous IHRM research has addressed these competencies, pointing out that expatriates' personal purpose for taking up an assignment is to learn from their expatriation (Hocking, Brown & Harzing, 2004). Other studies examine the perceived benefits of an international assignment. They identify general business understanding (Dickmann & Harris, 2005) or professional, managerial and intercultural skills (Dickmann & Harris, 2005; Stahl, Miller & Tung, 2002; Tung, 1998) as knowing-how competencies. Other studies mention more specific career-related skills such as language, negotiation and listening skills (Bossard & Peterson, 2005; Culpan & Wright, 2002).

Knowing-whom competencies

Finally, knowing-whom competencies reflect career relevant networks whose diverse and multiple meanings are stressed (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994). They no longer solely refer to business networks, but increasingly reflect communities of practice located outside organizational boundaries (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996) and developmental relationships outside one's place of work (Thomas & Higgins, 1996). As such, they include relationships with others on behalf of the organization as well as personal connections. As a career competency, these networks provide access to new

contacts and possible job opportunities (Arthur, 1994) and provide venues for career support and personal development (Parker & Arthur, 2000).

In previous IHRM research, knowing-whom is considered a key career capital field that is actively pursued (Dickmann & Harris, 2005). Accordingly, some studies identify knowing-whom competencies as business networks that were considered crucial for promotion (Dickmann & Harris, 2005; Linehan, 2002; Linehan & Scullion, 2002; Moore, 2006) whereas others show the relevance of culturally diverse networks in helping international managers with boundary spanning activities as well as giving them new career aspirations (Au & Fukuda, 2002).

Data analysis

To study global managers' career competencies, we turned to global managers' career stories. Within these stories, we searched for instances in which respondents mention career competencies when talking about their work as global manager.

The coding process of these career competencies was as follows. First, the first author examined global managers' career stories and selected instances where respondents discuss their positions as a global manager. On average, these positions occurred from the 4th career move onwards. In these parts of the career stories, the first author looked for instances in which respondents mention aspects of career capital accumulation or different types of career competencies. These included fragments in which global managers talked about the career competencies used to obtain the position of global manager as well as career competencies that were sought or developed by taking up the position of global manager.

Working in the tradition of content analysis (Weber, 1985), the first author then classified these instances into a-priori identified categories that reflect the three

career competencies. An instance of career competency accumulation was coded as 1) knowing-why competency if it related to values, meanings and interests that shape the way in which an individual's career develops; 2) knowing-how competency when it reflected career-relevant skills and job-related knowledge; and 3) knowing-whom competency if the instance involved relationships and social contacts. In total, 74 observations were identified and categorized as one of the three career competencies. Afterwards, the second author coded these instances and findings were compared. No discrepancies were found at this stage of the data analysis.

Next, both authors independently sought for subcategories within the three career competencies. We coded 51 observations of knowing-why competency as 1) work/life balance (e.g. "It is easier to go see my family more often. It is something that you take into account."); 2) international exposure (e.g. "I did that because it was a worldwide responsibility, I was in charge of worldwide sales and marketing, so I extended my geographical territory."); 3) professional identification (e.g. "I feel most comfortable in the link between sales and development… So I told them I wanted to be a global product manager."); 4) center of decision-making (e.g. "I need an organization with … decision-making power in Belgium."); 5) career progression (e.g. "When I applied back here, my goal was to, in fact take the first, really senior position in my career."); and 6) search for challenge (e.g. "And since there was nothing next in the UK office, nothing very motivating or interesting, and there was an opportunity which was much more interesting in Belgium, I decided to come back."). In terms of the knowing-how competency, we coded 11 observations as 1) operational skills (e.g. "… my objective was to become better at marketing."); and 2) general business understanding (e.g. "… an opportunity to get some experience and learn things on the product and the company."). Finally, we coded 12 observations of

knowing-whom competency as 1) professional networks (e.g. "I met the CEO of View Corporation, who used to be the head of that virtual company I worked for… and he said we might have something interesting for you here."); and 2) personal networks (e.g. an old friend of mine from a previous company was the CEO of this company in Singapore and he found my name and he proposed me that job."). In total, 16 discrepancies were found between the first and second author that were discussed and resolved (intercoder agreement k= .78 (Cohen, 1960)).

Findings

To understand the career competencies of global managers, we present in this section the ways in which global managers themselves talked about career competencies. In what follows, we first discuss the knowing-why competencies and then move on to the knowing-how competencies and knowing-whom competencies.

Knowing-why competencies

A majority of our findings (n=51) refer to the knowing-why competency, reflecting our respondents' motivation or identification sought from a position as global manager. Six subcategories of values and motivations were inductively derived from our interview data that reflect global managers' knowing-why competencies: work/life balance, international exposure, professional identification, the center of decision-making, career progression or a search for challenge.

Work/Life Balance. One of the key values (n= 12) that respondents in this study sought from a position as a global manager was a balance between work and family life. Global managers experienced this value to shape their careers after an expatriate assignment, after another global management position or when declining

assignments such as expatriation. In the majority of cases, families came into play after an expatriate assignment, either because the respondents aimed "clearly to go back to some stability, in my career but also in my life" or because they started raising a family. For instance, one of the respondents at View Corporation explained why he did not push for an extension of his expatriate assignment:

> Because of personal reasons, I did not insist for my expatriate assignment to be extended […] My wife was pregnant at that time so that offered new opportunities or actually, new demands to your personal life that compensate things.

In a few cases, respondents who had already experienced a global management position aimed for a similar role however with less travel because "I had a baby and my life changed again. Then it was really obvious that I wanted less travel." Finally, in two cases a work/life balance was sought from taking up a position as global manager instead of an expatriate assignment. A female respondent at Pharma Corporation declined the latter "because it was not the right time for my family." Or a respondent at Pharma Corporation explained his position as a global manager because of his wife's career. Being part of a dual-career couple, "for me, the best is to have the roots in Belgium, but in fact, I am sometimes only three days a month in Belgium. But at least I have my roots somewhere."

International exposure. Another motivation for global managers in our study is the international exposure sought through the organization or position and its responsibilities (n=11). First, respondents in this study identified themselves with the international character of an organization in which global managers operate. For example, this global director of corporate marketing indicated that she drew her identification and motivation from the international character of View Corporation:

> Because working in a Belgian or European context would be limiting. That's the fun of it, having colleagues around the world and the need to take them all into account.

Apart from the organization, respondents also sought knowing-why competencies from the "international character" of their position, in which the underlying rationale was to have "global exposure." According to a number of respondents, this exposure brought "an extra challenge, extra dimension that is professionally very satisfying."

Professional identification. Our data also revealed respondents' professional identification with certain characteristics of a global management position (n=10) as a knowing-why competency, allowing them to feel good about their work. For example, some respondents expressed their knowing-why as related to the functional domain of the position, "going back to my original interests, in which I would feel good," whereas others related it to the organization's business, "because the product fitted me." For example, a global marketing director at Vision Corporation told us how his interest for technology drove his decision to accept his current position:

> In March 2004, I was all of a sudden contacted by a headhunter. They asked me whether I would be interested in another position, a position as a global marketing manager here at Vision Corporation. I didn't know Vision Corporation at that time, so I did some research, saw what Vision Corporation was doing and yes, a number of things… they were of interest to me. One of the reasons I was interested was that this is a true technology company, which in the end wasn't that important anymore in IT.

Center of decision-making. Another motivation related to global managers' knowing-why competencies focused on the location of the global management position, reflecting the opportunity to work at the center of decision-making (n=8). For instance, one respondent explained his aim for a global management position primarily because of its location at the heart of the organization:

> In 1999, when everything really started, there was a job posting within one of the divisions. I took the job, because it provided me the opportunity to come back to the heart of View Corporation. So it was less important which position I had, but after, six, seven or eight years within the Special Components department, I was at the periphery of the organization. I built a network, got to

> know a lot of people and products, but I was not at the heart of the organization.

Respondents in our study gave two different meanings to their motivation to seek the center of decision-making to work in. First, from previous experiences, they considered this to be the place where the organizational strategy is being developed and where important decisions are made to which they can contribute. For example, coming from a subsidiary-level position in another organization, this respondent sought a global management position where she could assist in determining the strategy of the organization:

> What interested me was to make a move to headquarters, because it allows you to translate what you have learned at a subsidiary-level to the global level. So the tasks of a subsidiary at a national level, which is predominantly execution, whereas within headquarters, you are not only going to determine what others are going to execute, but also the strategies, in terms of development, and their connection with the commercial strategy, aligning them together.

Second, some respondents in our study found the center of decision-making to be motivating as a place to work among or at least with exposure to senior management. A future director of corporate mergers and acquisitions at Pharma Corporation explained his aim to work at the center of decision-making as follows:

> At some point, I always thought you needed to be at the center of the universe just to be in touch and have some exposure to the very senior management of the company.

We notice that, in this study, the center of decision-making refers to the headquarters of the organization. This is of course due to the fact that we sampled global managers from the headquarters of the three organizations that participated in the study.

Career progression. Further, our analysis showed that respondents also referred to the career opportunities inherent to a position as global manager (n=7). In these instances, a position as a global manager was aimed for as an opportunity for

further career development, for example when respondents considered themselves on a dead-end career path "reporting directly to the management-level, which left little possibility for further career growth." Or when the organization's career planning was not in line with their personal career preferences, "knowing that I had to be careful because I would have to leave the technical path within five years and be unhappy." Finally, in some cases a global management position was the next obvious step in their career progression. For example, one of the respondents at Pharma Corporation expressed why he applied internally for a job posting as worldwide marketing manager after his position as an expatriate:

> I had a three years contract [for an expatriate assignment in the UK]. I prolonged it for a year and then as soon as I did it, something happened here with the guy who was sitting in my seat now. He was leaving to Asia, so I applied for the position here because it was really the ideal kind of next move for me and you know... These kinds of opportunities only come along once every three or four years, so I thought I'm not going to stick around in the UK any longer, so I tried my chance and I got this position.

Search for challenge. Finally, some respondents expressed their knowing-why competency as their search for challenge (n=3), either when they considered their current position no longer interesting because for example "it had always been telecommunications and so I said, I want to try something new" or when a job posting reflected a new challenge. With regard to the latter, a director of global research explained why her current global position at Pharma Corporation included an important challenge that she was interested in:

> At Pharma Corporation, they were looking for something new to be started on outcomes research, and they …. The perspective was very interesting to me because it was really starting an entire project from scratch. Really making it happen in an environment that I was not used to, so to me, it was just like when I started working with my previous employer, where I really tried to make it happen.

Conclusion. The values, meanings and interests of global managers in this study that shape the way in which their career develops refer to work/life balance,

international exposure, professional identification, the center of decision-making, career progression and a search for challenge. Such knowing-why competencies are different from as well as similar to those of expatriate managers. First, contrary to expatriates' interest into professional development and future employability (e.g. Bossard & Peterson, 2005), global managers point to professional identification and well-being as values that relate to their knowing-why competency. In addition, rather than moving away from headquarters as expatriates do, global managers prefer centers of decision-making to work in. Other knowing-why competencies are similar in terms but differ in meaning. Both expatriate and global managers point to their families and the related work/life balance and international exposure as important values in their career development (e.g. Myers & Pringle, 2005; Suutari, 2003). However, global managers prefer their position as it leverages more stability and multicultural exposure in comparison to an expatriate position. Finally, our study suggests that career progression and the search for challenge are similar motives for both global managers and expatriates (e.g. Moore, 2006).

Knowing-how competencies

Respondents in this study also discussed how their position as a global manager developed their knowing-how competencies (n=11), referring to career-relevant skills and knowledge. We inductively derived two subcategories from our interview data that reflect global managers' career-relevant knowledge: operational skills and general business understanding.

Operational skills. Respondents in our study identified a variety of operational skills that they developed from their global management position, further contributing to their knowledge base (n=7). These skills ranged from functional knowledge such as

finance or sales, to geographical knowledge and people management skills. For example, a respondent who is now a global product manager at Pharma Corporation told us that she took a global management opportunity because she wanted to gain additional knowledge on finance:

> In the end, after eight years, I had developed a basis, which was marketing and R&D, so what needed to be added was finance. I like to have a broad knowledge base; I am not a specialist, rather a real good generalist. I know a lot about a lot of things, but I am no expert.

Or a global marketing manager at Pharma Corporation explained why he changed from an expatriate assignment to a position as global brand manager because of geographical skills:

> I thought that's enough, if I am going to stay there, I will become, you know, an expert in Asia, but I'm not going to kind of learn, you know, the business in the West. I started applying internally to come back. Essentially, you know… I was aiming for an international position, in international marketing. […] So I applied to become one of the global brand managers of that brand. And so I got that position and I moved back to Brussels.

A future director of global product management at View Corporation referred to the people management skills that he developed from being a global manager:

> Managing 450 people, that was a challenge as such, especially because they were spread over a number of locations, so I think I learned how to manage people, motivate them, getting some structure in the organization and being clear about responsibilities and expectations.

General business understanding. Our data also revealed global managers to derive a general business understanding from their role as global manager (n=4). A worldwide human resource manager of one of the business units at View Corporation explained that she wanted to move from a corporate position to a business unit in order "to operate more closely to the business and to gain experience and broaden my knowledge." A female respondent within Pharma Corporation explained us that she would gain a larger focus in the position as global manager:

> And then, when I was working into the research, I heard that they were looking at the institute, they were looking for somebody competent that could develop programs in collaboration with the US and Europe, and I thought that would be a nice move, because I had my background plus the experience in one specific field of cancer, and I could bring that into that program and I would learn a lot, because that would be much more wide in terms of, how to say this, target, much more target.

And even though it might not be a position for the rest of their lives, one respondent considered a role as global manager to be "a very nice opportunity to go in that direction, getting some experience and being able to learn a lot about the product and the company." In that sense, a position as a global manager was considered to equip this respondent with product and company knowledge through which he could further his career in this organization.

Conclusion. In sum, the most commonly identified knowing-how competencies that global managers acquired from their position as a global manager were a variety of operational skills and general business understanding. Although global and expatriate managers' position share the benefit of a general business understanding as knowing-how competency (e.g. Dickmann & Harris, 2005), our study suggests differences between both roles in terms of operational skills. Whereas global managers in our study refer to operational skills that are applicable to a multitude of cultures, studies on expatriates tend to refer to culture-specific skills as knowing-how competencies (e.g. Bossard & Peterson, 2005).

Knowing-whom competencies

Finally, analysis of the data showed the knowing-whom competencies used to obtain a global management position in terms of network contacts (n=12). Two subcategories were developed from our interview data: professional networks and personal networks.

Professional network. Respondents in our study (n= 11) claimed to have used their professional networks to move horizontally and obtain a position as global manager. These networks consisted mainly of (former) hierarchical superiors, colleagues and clients. For example, a network of former managers influenced the course of respondents' future careers as global manager. This is illustrated by a respondent at View Corporation who explained how he changed functional domains as a global manager:

> And then I encountered a manager of Telcom Corporation, a member of the board of directors, who was flying with me from Paris to Brussels, and he said to me, so what are you going to do? And I said well, I'll probably stay within the purchasing department. But he said no, you are already too long in purchasing, you need to do something else. And that man convinced me, so again, it can make a difference, knowing people who can convince and motivate you. So he said, you need to make a fundamental change, I am offering you a position within sales and marketing.

In another case, a female respondent within Pharma Corporation explained how a former colleague informed her on a job posting as a global manager in another business unit which she decided to take:

> They wanted to create a supply chain which didn't exist at that time. A former colleague from consultancy was responsible for the supply chain management and he wanted to create two departments, one for demand and the other one for production planning. So I took demand management as my responsibility.

Finally, a few respondents referred to their clients as a career-relevant network for future career opportunities. For example, a product manager who used to be responsible for Belgium explained that he extended his geographical reach because of his contacts within Vision Corporation:

> It is not a coincidence that I was hired as a global product manager by Vision Corporation. They were a customer of mine, or better said, of my previous employer, my first job, which was technical and commercial in nature. I visited a lot of companies, in a lot of different businesses, actually, in all businesses and we delivered products to companies that build machines. So Vision Corporation was one of them. I had been here already, in terms of my sales responsibility, so I knew what I was coming to.

Personal network. In our study, only one respondent (n=1) referred to his network beyond business, as "my friend was the CEO of this company in Singapore. He found my name and proposed me that job" as a global manager.

Conclusion. In sum, respondents in this study indicated to have applied their professional networks to further their career development. However, instead of considering them useful for promotion as expatriates do (e.g. Linehan, 2002), global managers consider these networks beneficial for horizontal career moves that sometimes crossed organizational boundaries.

Discussion

Examining the career stories of 45 global managers, our findings suggest that these managers have a specific framework of career competencies. In this section, we compare global managers' and expatriate managers' career competency profiles and reflect on the contribution of this research study to both the conceptual and empirical knowledge of career competencies.

Global managers versus expatriates

According to Adler and Bartholomew (1992), a number of differences exist between transnationally competent or global managers and traditional international or expatriate managers. Global managers need to understand the worldwide business environment from a global perspective, while expatriates focus on a single country when managing the relationship between headquarters and a single foreign subsidiary. They also suggest that global managers must learn about many foreign cultures' perspectives, tastes, trends, technologies, and approaches to conducting business, while expatriate managers focus on becoming an expert on one specific culture (Adler

& Bartholomew, 1992). Or instead of having expatriates' luxury of dealing with each country's issues on a separate and therefore sequential basis, global managers need to be skillful at working with people from many cultures simultaneously. Finally, Adler and Bartholomew (1992) suggest that global managers interact with foreign colleagues as equals, on a daily basis rather than from within clearly defined hierarchies of structural or cultural dominance and subordination as expatriates do. Our findings further extend these differences between global and expatriate managers in terms of career competencies.

First, our findings suggest three fundamental differences between global managers' and expatriates' career competencies. In the first place, global managers in this study relate their knowing-why competency to professional identification and well-being, while previous studies show that expatriates seek professional development and future employability (e.g. Moore, 2006; Reiche, 2006; Shen & Edwards, 2004). This suggests that global managers seek career opportunities in which they can identify themselves professionally and feel good, while expatriates focus on career moves from which they can benefit in terms of further professional and career development. Second, our study found the center of decision-making, in this case headquarters, to be an important source of identification for global managers. Global managers derive their motivation from strategy development and senior management exposure, factors which are lacking for expatriates who are moving away from the heart of their organization. Finally, in terms of knowing-how competencies, global managers in this study referred to functional or geographical knowledge as well as people management skills, all portable across culturally different settings. This is in contrast with studies on expatriates in which competencies are stressed that are culturally specific, applicable to their host country,

such as language or negotiation skills (e.g. Bossard & Peterson, 2004; Culpan & Wright, 2002).

Second, our study also found a number of apparently similar career competencies that however differ for global managers and expatriates when examining their meaning more in-depth. A first overlapping knowing-why competency is the value of work/life balance. Just as global managers in our study emphasize the importance of their family, research on (self-directed) expatriates has extensively discussed the role of family in the process of expatriation (Myers & Pringle, 2005; Richardson & Mallon, 2005). However, our findings suggest that a position as a global manager leverages more stability and balance than as an expatriate manager. While global managers maintain a stationary home base, expatriates need to consider their families in the decision to relocate. Second, our study and previous expatriate studies indicate that both global managers and expatriates are motivated to gain international exposure. However, different from expatriates being challenged to familiarize with one single foreign culture (e.g. Suutari, 2003), respondents in our study highlighted the advantage of having exposure to a great variety of cultures as a global manager. Finally, in terms of knowing-whom, rather than considering business networks to be crucial for promotion as expatriates do (e.g. Dickmann & Harris, 2005; Linehan & Scullion, 2002; Moore, 2006), global managers mainly refer to business networks in terms of making horizontal career moves that sometimes cross organizational boundaries. While global managers primarily use their business networks to change the functional or organizational context of their work, expatriates consider them useful in making vertical career progression (Moore, 2006; Peltonen, 1998; Shen & Edwards, 2004).

Finally, our study suggests that career progression and the search for challenge were similar motives related to knowing-why for both global managers and expatriates (e.g. Peltonen, 1998; Suutari, 2003). In a similar vein, expatriates as well as global managers refer to their knowing-how competency of general business understanding (e.g. Dickmann & Harris, 2005).

Overall, our findings show that global managers differ from expatriate managers in terms of their career competency profile. Respondents in our study predominantly consider their position as a global manager to be an experience that enriches them personally, while expatriate managers consider their international assignment as a useful means in terms of future (vertical) career progression.

Career competencies

This study also extends our current conceptual and empirical knowledge on career competencies (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994, 1996; Jones & Lichtenstein, 2000). In what follows, we reflect on the main findings of this study and discuss how they extend previous knowledge on the career competency framework.

Starting from a narrative question that instigates global managers to tell us their career stories, we approached the concept of career competencies from an open perspective. In contrast to earlier studies on the career competency framework, our findings suggest that each career competency relates differently to career development. First, respondents talk about knowing-why competencies in terms of what they *seek from* the position of global manager. This refers to their career insight (Eby et al., 2003; London, 1983), having career expectations and specific career goals that guide their career development. Second, respondents in this study talk about their knowing-how competencies in terms of what they *gain from* the position of global

manager. This reflects their career identity to engage in skill-enhancing opportunities and their immersion in professional activities (Eby et al., 2003; London, 1983). Third, knowing-whom competencies are discussed in terms of *using them to obtain* the position of global manager. This reflects their career community as a venue for career support and personal development (Eby et al., 2003; Parker & Arthur, 2000).

Second, our findings indicate the primacy of *knowing-why competencies*. In this study, 51 out of 74 observations relate to knowing-why competencies. The career literature however makes no reference to the primacy of any career competency, although the recent demise of organizational job security is suggested to promote the continuous pursuit of knowing-how (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994).

Similar to our findings, the empirical study of Sturges and colleagues (2003) shows that MBA graduates considered knowing-why the most important career competency. In this case, knowing-why was important because people considered embarking upon an MBA to stimulate their career development and made them think about their career orientation and aspirations (Sturges et al., 2003). In contrast, Dickmann and Harris' study (2005) which focused on the career competencies gained whilst on expatriate assignment shows that for expatriates, knowing-whom was the key career capital field. According to these authors, this stems from the fact that expatriate managers consider their organizational career progression as predicated by the quality of their internal networks (Dickmann & Harris, 2005).

Apparently, the primacy of a career competency depends on the sample being studied. In case of global managers and MBA graduates, knowing-why dominates the career competency profile. In our sample of global managers, a position as global manager resembles the one occupational option (Brown, 2002) that will satisfy global managers' work values of family stability, international exposure, professional

identification and decision-making all at once. This reasoning is further strengthened by the fact that a position as a global manager on average occurs from the fourth career move onwards. As such, respondents in this study have a certain career experience that allowed them to crystallize and prioritize their work values (Brown, 2002; Schein, 1996) and explore the labor market for a position that best matches them. In a similar vein, MBA graduates consider knowing-why the key career capital field because following an MBA program may have been a way to crystallize their work values (Brown, 2002; Sturges et al., 2003).

Third, our findings show the accumulation of *knowing-how competencies* from a position as global manager, such as functional and people management skills or a general business understanding. These are flexible skills that are portable across culturally diverse settings as well as functional or organizational boundaries. This is consistent with the boundaryless career literature in which portable skills, knowledge and abilities (Arthur, Claman & DeFillippi, 1995; Baker & Aldrich, 1996; Bird, 1996) are suggested to increase workers' range of potential jobs and organizations on the labor market (Hall, 1996; Mirvis & Hall, 1996). Employees are therefore advised to develop their knowing-how competency to compensate for the loss of job security (Baruch, 2004; Hall & Moss, 1998; Savickas, 2000) and ensure future career possibilities within and across organizational boundaries (Storey, 2000). Global managers in this study seek to ensure their future career options by increasing their operational skills and general business understanding.

These findings resemble Sturges and colleagues' categorization of 'hard' and 'soft' skills (2003). This study shows that MBA graduates gain business/management skills and people/team management skills through the MBA programme. In a similar vein, our data indicate that global managers develop functional and people

management skills from their position as a global manager. Compared to our findings, Dickmann and Harris (2005) identify knowing-how competencies of expatriates such as a general business understanding, increased commercial skills and intercultural competence. However, they do not elaborate further on the multicultural applicability of these skills.

Finally, global managers in this study point to knowing-whom competencies mainly in terms of business networks. This is in contrast with recent career theory suggesting that knowing-whom no longer exclusively refers to business networks within the organization. Rather, these competencies are suggested to incorporate communities of practice (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994) and developmental relationships outside one's place of work (Thomas & Higgins, 1996) such as colleagues, friends and other associates (Hall, 1996; Sullivan, 1999).

Empirical findings do not support this shift towards personal networks. Our study, as well as the empirical study of Dickmann and Harris (2005), indicates that knowing-whom competencies primarily refer to business networks. Expatriates indicated these business networks as the key career capital field to facilitate career development (Dickmann & Harris, 2005). In a similar vein, the study of MBA graduates (Sturges et al., 2003) shows that the alumni network, which is experienced as a group of friends, is not considered a resource for career development (Sturges et al., 2003). So, recent empirical studies on the nature of career competencies all suggest that business networks remain the most beneficial knowing-whom competencies in terms of career development.

The restriction of knowing-whom competencies to business networks indicates that only professional networks are considered a resource for career development. This reflects the argument of social resources theory (Lin, Ensel & Vaughn, 1981;

Seibert, Kraimer & Liden, 2001) that an individual's ties need to be instrumental or relevant to one's objectives. In this study, our findings indicate that global managers consider their hierarchical superiors as well as colleagues and clients to be useful for the attainment of their goals in career development.

Conclusion

The aim of this study was to develop our understanding of the career competency framework. Our findings show that global managers consider knowing-why a key career competency in their career development. What predominantly attracts them in a position as global manager, are the values that it represents; not only work/life balance as a principal value, but at the same time international exposure, professional identification and the center of decision making. The picture drawn from our data is one of workers aiming to develop a broad and flexible skill base they can carry along in new career opportunities, such as operational skills and a general business understanding. Some of them received such opportunities through their business networks. These allowed them to make horizontal career moves that sometimes crossed organizational boundaries. To conclude, we reflect on the limitations, possible avenues for future research and practice implications generated by this study.

The strength of this study at the same time reflects an important limitation, related to the fact that we examined global managers' career competencies from the open question to talk about their career development. Because of this, each type of career competency emerged from a different point of view. First, knowing-why competencies were talked about as something that respondents seek from the position of global manager, such as work/life balance or international exposure. However, we cannot determine from respondents' career stories whether they have actually attained

these knowing-why competencies. But at the same time, one can assume that the position of global manager has ultimately led to the successful acquisition of competencies as respondents mention them retrospectively without explicit referral to failure in that matter. This assumption stems from the fact that career stories are emotionally and symbolically charged narratives that enrich, enhance and infuse facts such as becoming a global manager with personal meaning (Gabriel, 2000). Second, knowing-how competencies were talked about in terms of the skills and knowledge that were developed from the position of global manager. This resembles other studies' methods, examining the career competency benefits of an expatriate assignment (Dickmann & Harris, 2005) or the MBA program as a vehicle for developing career competencies (Sturges et al., 2003). However, career stories are self-reported. These gains in terms of skills and knowledge should therefore be interpreted with caution. Finally, in terms of knowing-whom competencies, respondents in this study talked about the career competencies used for obtaining the position of global manager. However, this implies that we have no information on other networks that respondents might have gained or developed from the position of global manager.

A possible strategy for future research on career competencies that can overcome this limitation is to use a longitudinal research design. Such design allows the unit of study to be observed or measured at more than one point in time (Bijleveld & van der Kamp, 1998), examining the change from one period to another (Menard, 1991). In terms of knowing-why, researchers may benefit from this design as it enables them to study the knowing-why competencies gained by individuals after each career move. This will allow them to examine the actual and effective accumulation of career competencies and determine the knowing-why competency

benefits of different types of career moves. In terms of knowing-how competencies, future research can overcome the issue of self-reporting by adding an additional category of respondents to the longitudinal design, for example hierarchical superiors that can evaluate respondents' skill development after each career move objectively. Finally, in terms of knowing-whom competencies, a longitudinal approach allows respondents to reflect on the knowing-whom competency gains after each career move. This will prohibit them from taking their future career moves into consideration and limiting their stories to the knowing-whom competencies that were useful in career development.

Another limitation refers to our sample. Global managers in this study were located at headquarters, whereas the conceptual literature suggests that global managers can originate from any part of the globe (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992) and can work at any center of excellence that inherently incorporates a leadership role in its own expertise or product (Galbraith, 2000). Limiting our sample this way increased the homogeneity of the sample population, allowing for more generalizability towards this specific population. At the same time however, it restricted us to examine the nature of centers of decision-making in-depth. Future research may address this concern by examining samples of global managers in other centers of excellence, showing whether and how this location alters their knowing-why competencies.

To conclude, this study offers a number of insights into organizational support practices. First, this study suggests organizations to take an idiosyncratic approach. The primacy of knowing-why competencies suggests that a complex position as a global manager should appeal potential candidates personally. Therefore, our findings propose the selection process to become more important. For example, selection tests

could search for personal values and interests. That way, candidates can be identified that match the values which a position as global manager can fulfill.

Considering our findings in terms of knowing-how competencies, this study suggests organizations to train global managers on skills that can be applied across culturally diverse settings. Different from expatriate managers' cross-cultural training, global managers in this study indicate their preference for culturally-neutral operational skills that are portable and flexible across different settings. Training should therefore focus on hard as well as soft skills that transcend cultural boundaries.

Finally, in terms of knowing-whom competencies, our findings indicate that global managers value business networking with hierarchical superiors, colleagues and clients. Within an organizational context, stimulating internal networking could benefit the organization in two different ways. Not only is this useful in terms of internal knowledge sharing, it can also retain global managers by making them aware of career opportunities within the organization. As such, it stimulates global managers to make horizontal career moves within the organization instead of crossing organizational boundaries.

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CHAPTER 5

CONTEXTUALIZING CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE: THE CASE OF GLOBAL MANAGERS[6]

Abstract

This chapter contributes to the new research area of cultural intelligence (CQ) by exploring CQ for global managers, an increasingly relevant type of international work. As global managers need to interact with multiple cultures simultaneously, on an equal basis and through a variety of communication tools, we argue that such international work requires a particular set of capabilities that extends our current understanding of CQ. Through in-depth interviews with 38 global managers, we found that global managers' specific type of cross-cultural interactions requires particular cultural capabilities that point to additional indicators of the four dimensions of CQ.

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Introduction

As today's workplace is becoming more global and diverse, the concept of cultural intelligence has been introduced to understand why some individuals are more effective than others in dealing with situations that are culturally diverse. According to Earley and Ang (2003), cultural intelligence (CQ) refers to an individual's capability to deal effectively in situations characterized by cultural diversity and is a multi-factor construct with cognitive (meta-cognitive and cognitive), motivational and behavioral dimensions.

This study aims to contribute to this new research area by exploring CQ for a specific, but increasingly relevant type of international work, e.g. global managers. Working internationally has long been narrowed down to expatriation, in which individuals are relocated into a different cultural context. However, recent international management literature has argued that organizations can no longer afford to transfer people on a permanent basis to deliver certain services to parts of the organization. Rather, organizations increasingly rely on alternative types of international mobility such as global managers, awareness-building assignments, commuting assignments, extended types of business traveling and SWAT-teams (Collings, Scullion & Morley, 2007). These new types of workforce management are organizational responses to more complex global realities, characterized by speed, flexibility and heightened economic interdependencies (Kedia & Mukherji, 1999). They reflect alternative ways to coordinate the organization's activities across national, functional and business borders (Pucik & Saba, 1998) and to get the right skills or people to where the work is on an as-needed-basis (Roberts, Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Often, these alternative types of international work imply new ways of working across cultures. For instance, commuters interact with foreign colleagues on

a recurrent weekly schedule. Or in virtual assignments, managers rely on information technology to interact with their foreign colleagues. As each of these new types of international work creates their own challenges to cross-cultural interaction, the question arises to what extent they ask for a particular type of CQ.

In this chapter, we focus on one specific type of international work, the global manager, as we assume that his/her international work requires a particular type of CQ. Relying on previous definitions (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992; Pucik & Saba, 1998), we consider a global manager to be different from the traditional expatriate manager as s/he is someone who is assigned to a position with a cross-border responsibility rather than a local responsibility, who needs to understand business from a worldwide rather than a countrywide perspective, needs to balance between all local and potentially contradictory demands in the global environment rather than aligning a local demand with the ones from headquarters, and who must be able to work with multiple cultures simultaneously rather than with one culture at a time (Cappellen & Janssens, 2005). Such international work implies not only an increase in the variety and frequency of cross-cultural interaction but also a change in the very nature of cross-cultural interaction (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). However, no empirical research yet exists that examines their cultural capabilities more in detail.

Through a qualitative study of in-depth interviews with global managers of three international companies, we explore how these experienced and successful managers deal with cultural diversity. Relying on their accounts, we identify their cognitive (meta-cognitive and cognitive), motivational and behavioral dimensions of CQ (Earley & Ang, 2003). Through focusing on a specific sample of global managers, this chapter is an extension and application of Earley and Ang's conceptualization of

CQ (2003) that reflects appropriate cross-cultural capabilities for the complex reality in which global managers operate.

This chapter starts by presenting our empirical study. Relying on both the literature on global management and our interviews, we then discuss global managers' international work, aiming to understand its specificity and consequently the type of cross-cultural interactions. In the next section, we present our findings, discussing how the cultural ability of the global managers under study refers to the different dimensions of CQ. We conclude by reflecting on broader theoretical implications and future research on CQ as well as practical implications.

Empirical study

To explore the concept of CQ in the case of global managers, we draw on the results of a larger research study of 45 successful global managers, focusing on the careers of global managers. In this chapter, we rely on the data generated by 38 of these global managers who referred in-depth to how they experience cross-cultural interactions in their work and how they are dealing with cultural diversity.

In this chapter, we draw on the results of the interviews with 38 managers who, at the time of the interview, had a global responsibility: 9 in Pharma Corporation, 14 in View Corporation and 15 in Vision Corporation. We considered them to be successful global managers as 1) they fulfilled more than one global management position within the same company and 2) showed continued willingness to work globally. These two criteria follow the criteria of successful expatriation (e.g. Black, 1990; Caligiuri, 1997), suggesting that the company positively evaluates the managers' performance and individuals themselves are psychologically comfortable with working with other cultures. Being considered successfully, we assume that the

respondents' accounts of how they deal with cultural differences represent effective behaviors, and consequently provide us with relevant insights on global managers' CQ.

The data was analyzed through template analysis (King, 1999), starting from a template of four higher-order codes that represent the four dimensions of CQ while inductively searching for sub-codes that reflect indicators of each of these dimensions in the specific context of global managers' work reality. We found that encompassing categories of data refer to indicators in the Cultural Intelligence Scale (Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay & Chandrasekar, 2007), while other categories reflect capabilities that are specifically relevant to global managers.

Global managers and their cross-cultural interactions

To understand the specificity of global managers' cross-cultural interactions, we present in this section the nature of their international work. Relying on both the literature on global managers (e.g. Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Kedia & Mukherji, 1999; Roberts et al., 1998) and our interviews, we identify two aspects to be crucial in their international work: flexibility and worldwide coordination.

First, the global economic context implies an increasing challenge for organizations to work on a flexible and global basis in terms of workforce management. The right skills need to be where they are needed, regardless of geographical location (Roberts et al., 1998). This requires organizations to make the distinction between when it is necessary to physically move a person to a particular location and when the person's skills can be delivered through other means. Consequently, permanent transfers such as expatriate assignments are only used when necessary, relying when possible on the use of highly mobile global managers. In one

of the interviews, when asked about their international flexibility, a global purchasing director at Pharma Corporation told us:

> My position was called the international division, so I have been traveling quite a lot. Traveling a lot meant a minimum of, I would say in the very beginning, a couple of weeks a year to a full five months a year, so five months being away. So it means in total much more than five months. Most of my time was abroad, like when I was in Japan, I used to go minimum six times per year to Japan, so in operation two or three weeks. But officially, I was not a resident of Japan.

The consequence of this flexible deployment is that global managers spend shorter periods of time in any single country, often moving from one location to another. They use their cross-cultural skills on regular multi-country business trips and in daily interaction with foreign colleagues and clients worldwide, rather than just during foreign assignments (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). Such short-term, frequent cross-cultural interactions may prevent the aspirant-culturally intelligent manager to gain in-depth knowledge of foreign cultures and learn the fundamental principles of interaction within them. Even more, one can ask the question whether country-specific knowledge based on a large amount of contact with people from a single country is even still relevant to the global manager (Earley & Peterson, 2004).

Further, in the cases where their physical presence is not indispensable, new technologies can be used to interact with people across borders through teleconferencing or videoconferencing. Global managers do not work exclusively face-to-face; they use virtual tools to communicate in an efficient way, reducing the need for international business trips. A global director of corporate marketing at View Corporation told us how she alternates business trips with virtual tools:

> So am I still working internationally? Sure, even more, but I try to condense it. So I try to say to people "look, what can we already discuss at this point, in videoconference, or conference call. I am certainly going to come over there, but only in a later stage."

So, flexibility is also reflected in the variety of communication tools that global managers need to rely on when interacting cross-culturally. The lack of face-to-face contact that goes along with communication technologies may have implications for CQ. For instance, Earley and Ang (2003) stress the importance of verbal as well as non-verbal behavior in CQ, arguing that people having high CQ should be able to control their physical display sufficiently well so that nonverbal behavior conveys what verbal behavior produces. As global managers heavily rely on communication technologies, the question arises how their virtual way of interacting impacts their way of dealing effectively with other cultures.

Second, the economic interdependencies in a global context challenge organizations to coordinate their activities worldwide. Such coordination requires a global mindset in which competing forces are equilibrated rather than one dimension being favored at the expense of the others (Prahalad & Doz, 1987). Thinking globally means extending concepts and models from one-to-one relationships to holding multiple realities and relationships in mind simultaneously, and then acting skillfully on this more complex reality (Lane, DiStefano & Maznevski, 1997). It refers to the ability to balance different complex forces in pursuit of a unique strategy that blends them (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989). Global managers being responsible for such worldwide coordination are therefore working with people from many cultures simultaneously (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). They no longer have the luxury of dealing with each country's issues on a separate, and therefore sequential, basis. Rather, they need to consider multiple cultural issues at the same time or at least within a very short time frame. When talking about his daily tasks, a worldwide chemical engineering manager at Pharma Corporation told us that he needs to work with multiple cultures at the same time:

> I am working internationally because I have many contacts with colleagues that are outside of Belgium. I just got a phone call today from India, yesterday, I had a videoconference with Switzerland and last week, I was in the US and in the US I had to deal with some Japanese problems.

In addition, worldwide coordination means that information, knowledge and experience increasingly need to be distributed across national, functional and business borders (Pucik & Saba, 1998). Consequently, organizations are increasingly being structured along 'centers of excellence' (Galbraith, 2000), and authority and expertise no longer reside exclusively at headquarters (Roberts et al., 1998). This implies that global managers need to interact with foreign colleagues as equals, rather than from within clearly defined hierarchies of structural or cultural dominance and subordination (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). It is no longer the case that foreigners must adapt to the headquarters' culture; all managers need to make adaptations and all managers need to help to create a synergistic way of working that transcends any one national culture. Although headquartered in Belgium, a worldwide HR manager at View Corporation told us how they distance themselves from being the centre of the world:

> So Belgium, although we are headquartered here, it is not the centre of the world. […] It is not because we are the largest part globally, based here, that this needs to weigh on the decision making. So we are still a very strong Belgian company, […] but it means that everything with regard to internal communication […] needs to be in English.

The coordination aspect of global managers' work implies a specific nature of cross-cultural interactions, working simultaneously and on equal basis with people from different cultural backgrounds. As the concept of CQ does not explicitly deal with the challenge of working simultaneously with different cultures, the question arises whether the nature of global managers' cross-cultural interactions requires a specific type of CQ.

Cultural intelligence of global managers

In this section, we present the ways in which the interviewed global managers deal with cultural differences. For each of the different CQ dimensions, we first present the elements that correspond to the indicators suggested by Ang and colleagues (2007), followed by new insights on how global managers deal with cultural differences given the specificity of their international work. Within our sample, 28 out of 38 global managers confirmed at least one CQ indicator; 24 out of 38 reported on at least one different CQ indicator. We start with the cognitive dimension of CQ, followed by the behavioral, meta-cognitive and the motivational dimension of CQ.

Cognitive dimension

Cognitive CQ is an individual's knowledge of specific norms, practices, and conventions in different cultural settings (Ang et al., 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003). This dimension of CQ represents an individual's ability to assess the similarities and differences in cultural situations in ways that allow him/her to produce culturally appropriate behavior.

Global managers in our study agreed on the relevance of cultural knowledge for their cross-cultural work, as "you need to know what is allowed and what isn't" in a specific culture. According to them, knowledge is important because "one needs to understand why somebody acts the way he does" and, already referring to behavioral CQ, because "you need to react differently, negotiate differently and so on." Consistent with the Cultural Intelligence Scale of Ang and colleagues (2007), global managers indicated the importance of language because "if you don't speak it, it would be difficult to say what a culture is really like." However, language knowledge does not only encompass a cognitive element, it also impacts the relationship with

locals. For instance, one global manager stated: “even though you speak only half of it, the effort builds bridges and makes you get on more easily.” In a similar vein, having some historical knowledge is argued to be a sign of respect for the other culture. As a global manager of View Corporation told us, “what I also do, for example, is when you go to a country, you try to know something of its history, to a certain extent I try to know something, out of respect for the people there, for my customers.”

Whereas cultural knowledge is considered to be important, some interviewees (n=7) further explained how they focused primarily on knowledge of managerial styles and behaviors, and less on religious beliefs, marriage systems and arts and crafts (Ang et al., 2007). They referred to knowledge regarding the importance of hierarchy, relationships in doing business, negotiation styles, direct versus indirect communication, and so on. For instance, a global Product Manager from Vision Corporation recounted how German, American and Japanese cultures differ in terms of how confrontational one can be:

> …the attitude of really wanting to know how these people function and how they like to be dealt with, how they like to work and then being able to adjust yourself to it. In my experience, this always leads to the best results. For example, Germans always say for themselves what they think and they like you to do the same. Whether this is good or bad, it doesn’t matter. It’s just that, when you need to deliver some bad news, just do it. Say, I have some bad news, this and that, but I suggest this and that as a solution. With Americans, for example, you need to handle this in a completely different way. To them, everything is always great and okay, even when things are going bad, you need to give it a turn. You really can’t be as confrontational as with Germans for instance. The Japanese, they don’t know the word no. So when they ask you something and you would like to say no, you need to know that saying no doesn’t really fit their culture. It’s probably more yes, but…

However, while global managers in general pointed to their need to gain knowledge of cultures, some global managers in our sample (n=8) questioned the ability to acquire in-depth cultural knowledge. In first instance, they referred to the

lack of time they have to do so, given their frequent travels and short visits. For instance, one global manager told us: "if you fly in and out, most of the time they are short visits, the cultural awareness is of course important, but not stimulated." Moreover, a few global managers openly questioned the ability to gain full understanding of other cultures. They argued that "one can imagine how one behaves in other cultures, but in the end, it is still always a surprise." A vice-president sales and marketing from View Corporation reported it as follows:

> Because as a foreigner, I cannot understand all of them. They tell me something and they think I understand. It's not about the language, it's about the way to look at life. I think I understand, but in reality, I don't understand. Many people say something and they mean something, and sometimes, all of the time, I need somebody to translate it, what they mean. Not what they say, but what they mean. And they will express it in a different way, depending on the culture.

When asked further about the way they then deal with cultural differences, they argued that "some general leads" can already facilitate working with other cultures. We will discuss their behaviors and tactics more in-depth when presenting new insights regarding the behavioral and meta-cognitive dimensions.

Behavioral dimension

The behavioral dimension of CQ reflects an individual's flexibility in exhibiting appropriate behavior when interacting with people who differ in cultural background (Ang et al., 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003).

Global managers in our sample considered flexibility in behavior to be important for working successfully international. They very often referred to openness towards other cultures in terms of "not imposing your own way or will but adjusting to the local culture" as a basic attitude. Consistent with Ang and colleagues' (2007) indicators, they pointed to changes in verbal behaviors. For instance, one global

manager described being flexible in terms of having meetings in which "in the U.S., you can say in relatively simple words what you think; but in the U.K., even in the same language, you have to say it in a more diplomatic way."

In addition however, global managers in our study emphasized the need to adjust their management style while working with other cultures (n=6). Just as they stressed cultural knowledge of management behaviors, they argued the importance of adopting a different style when working in different cultural environments. They deal differently with hierarchy, convince customers in a different way or stimulate creativity in another way. A worldwide sales manager in Pharma Corporation called himself a "chameleon" when telling us about his flexibility in exhibiting appropriate management behavior:

> If you are entering into a meeting room typically in the US and people are, you know, exchange a couple of jokes and then jump on you as if they want to tear you apart, I feel comfortable to go on this level of rapid fire exchange and those kind of things. And usually, it helps managing the situation. But by the same token, if you are, in a completely other extreme, an old Japanese company and you sit on a couch instead of in a meeting room and it takes an hour to go around the table before you even address anything,… I don't feel impatient...

Besides emphasizing the need to adjust their management style, some global managers expressed behavioral tactics that until now were not considered expressions of CQ. When global managers who questioned the ability to acquire in-depth cultural knowledge were asked how they tried to work effectively with other cultures, they referred to three types of behaviors: 1) they take a personal rather than a cultural approach; 2) they focus on cultural artifacts rather than on underlying values and assumptions; and 3) they rely on local informants rather than gaining the cultural knowledge themselves.

First, when working with a multitude of cultures in a rather short time frame, some global managers reported that they take a very personal approach in their

international work (n=3), such as by "having good contacts with people I work" or "knowing very little of India, but knowing the people who work there by name." They stressed the importance of establishing good interpersonal relationships through knowing each other more personal. A second behavioral tactic referred to focusing on the cultural artifacts rather than trying to understand the underlying values and assumptions of cultures (n=3). Some global managers explicitly argued that they are flexible in exhibiting appropriate behavior but only regarding more "superficial" things. For example, a business unit vice president of View Corporation reported how he is unable to understand all cultures, but adjusts to some of the cultural artifacts:

> So you need to eat with sticks in China and eat burgers with a lot of mustard in the States and drink large glasses of beer. … I do not try to unravel all these cultures, because I don't think it makes sense. For example, in America, you need to attend a baseball game once, you cannot understand… how it is being performed, you cannot imagine. But I don't put a lot of effort in it, I have some colleagues who try to unravel all these things, the American culture … I'm not. Just let yourself go with the flow, walk with them, talk to them, yell with them, and then it will work.

In a similar vein, one respondent recounted that he surfs the internet before leaving to a foreign country. He searches for information or recent events in that country that serve as "conversation openers" when he is meeting new people. Again, this global manager is not so much concerned about exhibiting appropriate behavior based upon in-depth cultural knowledge but more about "showing openness and empathy" through expressing an interest in the country. Finally, global managers reported that they rely on local informants to express appropriate behaviors (n=4). Rather than gaining themselves in-depth cultural knowledge, they find local individuals whom they can trust in interpreting cultural behaviors. A vice-president sales and marketing from View Corporation expressed this as follows:

> And also, I very often find one person in every region whom I trust. One local person which I, whom I can call, who speaks good English and who can, let's

> say, give me the view of the local people. That's extremely important, because as a foreigner, I cannot understand all of them.

Next to these behavioral tactics related to the inability of knowing cultures, our data revealed some other indicators of behavioral CQ that are related to global managers' specific task of worldwide coordination. Very often mentioned is the behavior of listening (n=7). Many global managers stressed that "what I do is, I listen a lot; and I try not to impose my view on the people." The reason for this behavior is linked to their task of worldwide coordination. For instance, one global manager expressed that "defining your marketing strategy from Europe without involvement of the Americans is suicide. If you really want to work in a global way, then you need to involve people of other cultures in your decision making process and this means really listening to people." Or a worldwide quality manager described his listening behavior as a crucial element of his reflective behavior:

> Being open, listening, not giving a reaction immediately, and then, how should I call it? Zooming in and zooming out… zooming in to empathize, to familiarize with certain elements and then taking a much broader perspective. And that's a reflection I make in my work daily, a lot, when I'm working on certain things, most of the time it's on processes and then I will always check with Karlsruhe and India, because when we do it like this, it is okay for all three of them or if not, we need to adjust the flavor.

Another, related behavioral indicator that is often mentioned was "taking time" (n=4). Global managers argued that to be able to take into account local differences, they "need a lot of time", to "be careful" and "avoid the pressure of time." For instance, a global business improvement manager in Pharma Corporation described her strategy as follows:

> What I try to do so that I can work with everybody is to be very open, and to welcome them. I speak a lot with them over the phone, and then I always try to say things in a nice tone of voice, and not to be under pressure of time, but take time with them, to let them speak. I also always ask for their input, their feedback, thank them for what they do and tell them that if they want to change something or think about something, they can let me know.

Finally, one global manager mentioned a particular flexibility in exhibiting appropriate behavior which was related to virtual communication. Besides working face-to-face, a lot of cross-cultural interactions in global work take place through e-mail, teleconferencing and videoconferencing. Talking about the different communication tools, one of our interviewees, a worldwide accounting manager in View Corporation, stressed the importance of selecting the right communication channel, especially when it concerns sensitive topics:

> I try to understand how things fit and when there are remarks, also when I think that something is sensitive… a lot of communication runs through e-mail. When I feel that there is something rather strange, I call, because that is a lot easier. That's a huge disadvantage about e-mail, everything is immediately written, on paper, and also it sounds so definite and comes across rude. So, I will try to phone them as much as possible, talk. That's then the only thing I can do.

Meta-cognitive dimension

The meta-cognitive dimension of CQ refers to an individual's cultural consciousness and awareness during interactions with those who have different cultural backgrounds (Ang et al., 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003). It is a critical aspect of CQ because much of what is required when interacting in a new culture is the ability to put together parts into a coherent picture, even if one does not initially know how this picture is going to be like (Earley & Peterson, 2004).

Global managers in our study acknowledged the relevance of this dimension, referring especially to consciousness about cultural differences. As they have contact with different cultures simultaneously or in a very short sequential way, our interviewees expressed the need to be aware "for what happens on all sides and being open to small things you see and the things you can see in between the lines." They further indicated that awareness of differences was important because "as long as you know, you first of all won't get annoyed and then second you try to adjust."

Our data however expands this notion of being conscious of cultural differences and knowledge, as a few global managers in our study expressed another meta-cognitive element, e.g. being conscious about integrating different perspectives (n=2). They argued that part of their international work is to search for compromises or combinations of different approaches. They are aware that "you cannot work in four ways at the same time. You need somehow to find a good compromise." A crisis manager in Vision Corporation expressed his view on this constant search as follows:

> You need to adjust. You cannot impose your method, your way of thinking or whatever on them; you need to integrate anyhow to get something accomplished. And that is the case for China, Japan, Taiwan, U.S., they need to have the feeling that you are one of them or at least that you understand them and that you will defend, this is a heavy word, them at headquarters.

Finally, another indicator of meta-cognitive CQ that emerged from the data is "being conscious about one's own frame of reference" (n=2). Rather than being conscious about putting parts together into a coherent picture of the other culture, the global managers in our study pointed to the need to "detach yourself from your own framework, so not taking your own culture as the norm or basis of what counts on a worldwide scale." Again, this suggests that global managers, because of the nature of their international work, can not be oriented towards building in-depth cultural knowledge of other cultures. As they need to work with many cultures at the same time, they can only be aware that they don't know and focus on "distancing one self from their own framework."

Motivational dimension

Finally, the motivational dimension of CQ reflects the ability and motivation to use cultural knowledge and produce a culturally appropriate response (Earley & Ang,

2003). It refers to an individual's drive and interest to learn and function in situations characterized by cultural difference.

Global managers in our study pointed out that the joy of interacting with people from different cultures is an important motivational element. Most respondents find working across cultures extremely "fascinating", "enriching" – "the icing on the cake" as put by one global manager, because "you get to know a lot of new things, you meet lots of people too, you handle them differently." Most global managers in our study like it because "it just opens your mind to different people, to different mindsets, different mentalities." According to a worldwide sales director in View Corporation, working across cultures fits his personality:

> I may be an exception to that, but I find traveling, for me, for my personality, it is something I like. When I travel, I always ask them, off the record of course, to book me a hotel in the town centre, where I can enjoy a little exploration after work. Not much, but just to feel how these people live. I like that a lot, so I also frequently visit local restaurants and so on, so I have this interest.

The global managers in our sample also often mentioned confidence in their ability to deal with cultural differences. Talking about their interactions with people from sometimes completely different cultures, most interviewees felt very comfortable doing so. For some of them, this ability came from their interest and experience as "you observe, you inform, from people who are experienced in how you should deal with it and how you can adjust yourself to it, and then you just do it." For others, their confidence in working across cultures was build during their childhood as they were raised in two or more cultures.

Besides enjoying other cultures and feeling confident in dealing with them, our data suggest an expansion of motivational CQ. Throughout the interviews, our respondents expressed a motivation to work internationally because they "like to experience the world as my working space" (n=5). It's not only the joy of interacting

and living with people from other cultures but also the joy of *working* with many different cultures, different views. Global managers seem to be motivated by "knowing the world and needing to react to all those impulses which is a never-ending learning process" which is a critical aspect of their coordination task. A global R&D manager in Pharma Corporation expressed it as follows:

> It is unbelievable to see how you can behave in one environment and having things done in another environment, it will never work. And the way, actually, you deal with people to make it work in a different environment, is one of the most challenging things like switching from discussing a project with our US colleagues and then discussing the same project with our Japanese colleagues. I mean, it's so different to really make it work; it is that challenge, I like.

Discussion

Interviewing 38 global managers, our study suggests that the specificity of their cross-cultural interactions requires a particular set of capabilities that extend the current universal construct of CQ (Earley & Ang, 2003). While our data support the four dimensions of cognitive, behavioral, meta-cognitive and motivational CQ, they also suggest that global managers require a particular type of CQ because of their short-term and frequent contact, variety in communication tools, and the nature of their cross-cultural interactions.

Short-term, frequent contact

First, our findings suggest that global managers' short-term but highly frequent cross-cultural interactions have important implications for the cognitive, behavioral and meta-cognitive dimensions of CQ. First, in terms of cognitive CQ, some global managers in our study questioned their ability to gain in-depth cultural knowledge. Second, rather than relying on a purely cognitive basis, global managers in our study turned to behavioral tactics such as taking a very personal approach or acquiring

knowledge on a few cultural artifacts to compensate for a limited cognition. Finally, global managers in this study also reported on their experience of distancing themselves from their own frame of reference, pointing to another indicator of meta-cognitive CQ.

This extension of CQ because of global managers' short-term, frequent cross-cultural interactions corresponds to the notion of mindfulness. According to Thomas (2006), mindfulness is a linking process between knowledge and behavioral ability in which people are aware of their own assumptions, ideas and emotions and their selective perception, attribution and categorization. Compensating for the inability to gain more general in-depth cultural knowledge, mindfulness implies an enhanced attention to the particular current experience or present reality and its context while creating new mental maps of other peoples' personality and cultural background as a basis for immediate action (Thomas & Inkson, 2004). From this perspective, cultural intelligent global managers are able to approach a situation with an open mind, focusing their attention to personal and context-specific details (Thomas, 2006).

Variety in communication tools

Our study also points to the consequences for CQ if working across cultures occurs through a variety of communication tools. Due to the nature of their international work, global managers can not rely uniquely on face-to-face contacts but make use of a variety of communication tools such as e-mail, teleconferencing and videoconferencing. Such reliance on a variety of communication tools extends the dimension of behavioral CQ, pointing to the ability to select the right communication channel for the task at hand.

Earlier studies on computer-mediated communication have examined the effects of virtual communication tools, indicating for example that people need to use rich channels for uncertain and equivocal communication (Daft & Lengel, 1984, 1986). Face-to-face communication for example is found to be the richest communication channel, preferred by people working on complex or "un-analyzable" problems, whereas a poor medium such as e-mail is preferred when parties need to edit, store, forward or print large amounts of text, allowing for more exchange of content in a single unit of time (Hinds & Kiesler, 1995). Therefore, cultural intelligent global managers are able to use this variety of tools strategically, selecting the communication tool corresponding to the characteristics of the message being sent.

Nature of cross-cultural interactions

Finally, the findings suggest that the nature of global managers' cross-cultural interactions – interacting simultaneously with foreign colleagues across multiple cultures on an equal basis – extends the behavioral, motivational and meta-cognitive dimensions of CQ. In terms of behavioral CQ, global managers reported to rely on behaviors such as listening and taking time to successfully deal with their task of worldwide coordination. Further, our study suggests that the motivational dimension of CQ for global manages also encompasses a motivation to consider the world as one's working space. Finally, global managers' need to be conscious about the integration of different perspectives in this study reflects an extension of meta-cognitive CQ.

Being cultural intelligent when working simultaneously with multiple cultures corresponds to the fusion approach proposed by Janssens and Brett (2006). Focusing on global teams, these authors argue that creative and realistic solutions are produced

if cultural differences can coexist and be combined such that the distinct qualities of each culture are respected and preserved. In this line of thought, cultural intelligent global managers ensure that foreign colleagues can maintain their cultural way of working, searching for synergistic solutions when working across cultural boundaries (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992).

Conclusion

This empirical study extends our understanding of CQ with regard to one new type of international work: the global manager. It shows that global managers' specific type of cross-cultural interactions requires particular cultural capabilities, pointing to additional indicators of cognitive, motivational, behavioral and meta-cognitive dimensions of CQ. To conclude, we reflect on the limitations, possible avenues for future research and practice implications generated by this study.

The main limitation of this study is related to the possibility of respondents' bias. When asking someone how he or she behaves in a culturally different situation, the answer may be one of espoused theory (Argyris & Schön, 1974), which reflects the theory of action that he or she gives allegiance to and communicates upon request. However, this might be very different from the theory-in-use. Interpretations of the results therefore have to be made carefully. Future research may address this concern by complementing questions on behaviors with observations that might raise the accuracy of the represented theory-in-use (Argyris & Schön, 1974).

Another possible avenue for future research is to examine other types of international work and its corresponding type of CQ. Whereas earlier work considered CQ as a universal construct (Earley & Ang, 2003), this study showed that future research may benefit from considering the specific nature of international work as it

may generate particular cross-cultural interactions. Future studies may therefore want to replicate this study for other types of international work, such as virtual teams or commuting assignments. Having identified specific cultural capabilities for different types of international mobility, further research may relate the specifics of CQ to other issues in international work such as selection and training. For instance, they may examine the validity of selection tests which include CQ for specific types of international work.

To conclude, this study offers a number of apparent insights for developing organizational training programs that support global managers in their CQ. First, instead of offering training on country-specific knowledge, organizations may benefit from developing a training programme on mindfulness, in which global managers apprehend how to counterbalance their lack of in-depth cultural knowledge by distancing oneself from their own frame of reference and/or by negotiating reality, learning new ways of seeing and doing in a specific context (Friedman & Berthoin Antal, 2005). Second, organizations can increase global managers' ability to effectively communicate across cultures by offering training on different virtual communication tools. Knowing the advantages and disadvantages of a range of communication tools will help global managers to assess which tools are most appropriate for which purpose. And finally, the skill to combine different cultural perspectives into a creative and realistic acceptable solution can be developed by offering global managers negotiation training, focusing on achieving integrative outcomes (Brett, 2007). So, developing global managers' CQ requires a move from traditional cross-cultural training to training on becoming a mindful global manager, effective virtual communicator, and integrative negotiator.

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CHAPTER 6

EPILOGUE

The main objective in this dissertation was to raise our understanding of a new type of international work, e.g. the global manager who is responsible for worldwide coordination. In this epilogue, we further reflect on the findings within this dissertation by discussing 1) the meaning of global that respondents in this study refer to; 2) the skill-set of global managers; 3) an integrated HR-policy for global managers; and 4) challenges and opportunities for future research.

The meaning of global

In recent IHRM literature, an emerging body of research is studying global managers, global leaders, global leadership, global mindset and global competencies (e.g. Brownell & Goldsmith, 2006; Caligiuri, 2006; Conner, 2000; Levy, Beechler, Taylor & Boyacigiller, 2007; Osland, Bird, Mendenhall & Osland, 2006; Rhinesmith, 1996; Vance, 2005). However, these concepts have been used with very different meanings to the notion global, making scholars argue for a clear specification and definition in future research studies (e.g. Suutari, 2002). Different from earlier research, this dissertation has started from a strategic point-of-view, locating global managers in transnational environments (e.g. Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992; Kedia & Mukherji, 1999; Roberts, Kossek & Ozeki, 1998) where businesses are increasingly subjected to simultaneous demands for national responsiveness, global efficiency, and worldwide innovation (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989, 2000; Galbraith, 2000; Prahalad & Doz, 1987). In this context, strong global management is needed to establish communication and coordination between units (Galbraith, 2000), to identify

worldwide customers, economies of scale and scope and exchange information, products and people (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989, 2000; Ghoshal & Nohria, 1993). This study therefore identifies global as the responsibility of worldwide coordination and has examined how this meaning of global is experienced by individual managers themselves. The findings in this dissertation suggest that global encompasses three aspects (cf. Osland et al., 2006): it has a geographic, cultural and intellectual reach. We incorporate the findings of our different empirical chapters into this overview.

Geographic reach

In some instances, global encompasses a geographic reach in terms of business operations. In chapter 3, our findings show that global managers' responsibility to coordinate worldwide reflects a geographic area of responsibility that encompasses all organizational units spread across locations. This also relates to the findings on motivational CQ in chapter 5 that indicate global managers' motivation to consider the world as their working space.

Most of the respondents under study experience this geographic reach of their position to be challenging (chapter 3). First, because of their work across different locations, global managers need to manage, direct and control in a very different way. They no longer see their coworkers face to face and can check visually what they are doing, but need to rely on communication channels such as telephone or email to check whether remote coworkers have taken up an issue at hand. Global managers deal with these geographic challenges by making frequent business trips, which allow them to meet people face-to-face and focus their attention to one specific area (chapter 3). Or they use virtual communication tools, spanning the geographic boundaries between themselves and their coworkers by the use of e-mail, teleconferencing or

videoconferencing (chapter 3). However, global managers' behavioral CQ indicates that this implies them to learn how to select the appropriate communication tool for the task at hand (chapter 5).

In addition, this geographic reach came across when global managers talked about the different time zones in which other organizational units are located (chapter 3). Working across different time zones not only requires a 24-hour work schedule, global managers also consider it challenging to efficiently organize work according to each unit's geographic location. Our findings indicate that global managers deal with these geographic challenges by organizing their work and planning their daily routines along these time zones (chapter 3). Working from a European home base, the global managers under study indicate how they contact the Asian region early in the morning, scheduling their contact with Americans later in the afternoon.

From the findings in chapter 3, it becomes clear that the geographic reach of a global management position has implications for global managers' personal life. On the one hand, working across different time zones makes global managers in this study work long hours that abound in private time, while business trips lead to frequent absences from home. However, on the other hand, these findings also indicate that global managers under study consider their autonomy and freedom to organize work as an enabler to minimize the impact on their personal life. In a similar vein, the findings in chapter 4 indicate that global managers under study consider their frequent, but short absences from home to maintain stability in their private sphere, because they are not required to relocate their families and disrupt their wife's career or children's education because of their personal interest to work internationally.

Cultural reach

In other instances, global refers to a cultural reach. Working on a worldwide scale not only implies a broad geographic area but also incorporates a range of different cultures to work with. This meaning especially came across in the findings of chapter 3 where global managers under study refer to the multicultural scope of their work. In chapter 4 and 5, global managers point to the cultural reach of global when discussing their knowing-why competency in terms of a career interest for international exposure and their motivational CQ to consider the world as their working space. In addition, our findings on meta-cognitive CQ in chapter 5 indicate that the cultural reach of global also has implications for global managers' own cultural framework.

These findings again relate to the challenges that global managers under study encounter in their responsibility of worldwide coordination. Making frequent business trips, our findings indicate that global managers find themselves having only short-term (but frequent) contact with coworkers across cultural boundaries (chapter 3). As such, they consider themselves lacking the time to gain in-depth culture-specific knowledge. To counterbalance their lack of cultural cognition, the findings on cognitive CQ indicate that global managers rely on their knowledge of cultural artifacts rather than values, or more specifically focus their cultural learning towards managerial styles and behaviors (chapter 5). Or, global managers in this study also point to the strategy of taking the time to listen to culturally diverse partners in conversation or approaching them very personally.

Although experiencing the cultural reach of their position as an important challenge in their work, global managers under study are motivated to work across cultures. This came across when discussing global managers' knowing-why competency. These findings indicate that global managers show a high interest in

international work, and as such, multicultural exposure in their career (chapter 4). In this study, findings show that respondents actively pursue career opportunities that include multicultural contacts. In a similar vein, global managers' motivational CQ includes their joy of interacting, living and working with people from multiple cultures (chapter 5). They not only feel confident in doing so, but consider it a never-ending learning process that attracts them.

Working across a multitude cultures without having in-depth cultural knowledge, global managers in this study point to their meta-cognitive CQ in terms of being conscious of their own cultural background and its corresponding frame of reference through which they approach issues (chapter 5). Instead of taking this as a starting-point, our findings indicate how global managers distance themselves from their own cultural framework.

Intellectual reach

Finally, in some instances, global had the meaning of intellectual reach. Not only does worldwide coordination require global managers to work across geographic and cultural boundaries, it also compels them to think in a global way. Our findings in chapter 3 point out that global managers' work as worldwide coordinators requires them to have a global mindset and to pass this on to remote coworkers. In addition, the intellectual reach of global comes across in the findings of chapter 3 that show global managers considering their position as a higher power position. In chapter 4, this emerges as global managers' knowing-why competency of seeking the center of decision-making.

Coordinating business on a global scale, our findings indicate an intellectual reach of the notion global in terms of global managers' required ability to

conceptualize complex geopolitical forces (chapter 3). They need a global mindset themselves, but consider it even more challenging to transpose this mindset to their team members in order to make them think beyond local interests. As such, global managers aim for a synergistic way of doing business in which they integrate different perspectives into a strategy that benefits all.

Finally, the intellectual reach of global is also reflected in global managers' perception of their work as having a higher power position. In contrast to our previous findings that relate global managers' work to the integration of different perspectives, global managers clearly link their task of worldwide coordination to control. In their role of coordinators, our findings show global managers to control and verify the work of coworkers in other units of the organization (chapter 3). As such, it relates to global managers' knowing-why competency that reflects their motivation to seek the center of decision-making (chapter 4).

Towards a skill-set for global managers

Inspired by previous studies on global leadership, their capabilities, and related competencies (e.g. Caligiuri, 2006; Osland et al., 2006), we further reflect in this epilogue on the skill-set of global managers. Within this dissertation, a number of findings guide us towards three types of challenges for global managers that reflect particular knowledge and skills needed to work effectively as a worldwide coordinator.

First, our study shows that global managers are challenged by the multicultural nature of their work. Our findings strongly suggest that global managers need culture-general knowledge (Hofstede, 2001) that reflects their awareness of their own mental make-up and the fact that this (may) differ from other cultures. This fundamentally

starts with knowledge of their own cultural background and how this influences them to approach issues in a certain way. As a basis for effective transnational interactions (Dinges, 1983), global managers need to examine their own mental maps in-depth. This way, they can open themselves up to divergent cultural influences and experiences (Koehn & Rosenau, 2002). With regard to other cultural frameworks, our study suggests that global managers' knowledge of other cultures needs to be focused towards cultural artifacts or managerial styles and behaviors. This way, global managers can direct their behavioral efforts straight towards business as they lack the time to gain in-depth knowledge of each culture's underlying values and norms.

Our study suggests a variety of skills to counterbalance this lack of in-depth knowledge of other cultures. In essence, these come down to the ability to apply and adapt intercultural understanding and sensitivity (cf. Koehn & Rosenau, 2002). For example, global managers can listen and take their time to interact with people in culturally diverse settings. Or global managers may prefer to take a very personal approach. Addressing people by name, global managers can establish direct and personal contact that overcomes cultural differences. This will not only facilitate cross-cultural interactions, but can also enhance global managers' professional networking, which is valued as a career competency.

A second challenge for global managers is working across locations and time zones, implying frequent business trips and long working hours. This challenge is reinforced by global managers' value of a work/life balance, creating an additional difficulty in combination with frequent business trips and long working hours.

Establishing such balanced life requires personal resources such as energy, time, and commitment to be well distributed across domains (cf. Kirchmeyer, 2000). Therefore, global managers need the skill to efficiently organize their work. This not

only incorporates the organization of their virtual communication along time zones, it also entails planning their business trips as well-deliberated absences from their families. For example, they can keep a second agenda in which they collect issues that need to be dealt with in face-to-face contacts and select out those that can be dealt with through other communication channels. Planning their business trips well in advance, global managers can organize these business trips around important family or social events.

A third challenge is to develop a global mindset and transfer it among their remote coworkers. Global managers are challenged to coordinate their remote teams and involve and motivate them into the overall, transnational strategy of the organization.

Our findings suggest two skills that global managers need to apply to overcome these challenges. First, to counterbalance the physical distance between global managers and their remote team members, our study suggests that global managers should be capable of selecting appropriate communication tools. Appropriate selection of these tools enables global managers to effectively transfer messages across geographic and cultural boundaries without necessitating them to move physically. Global managers therefore need to be capable of matching rich channels to uncertain and equivocal communication and large amounts of text to poor channels such as e-mail (cf. Hinds & Kiesler, 1995). A second skill that global managers need is the ability to conceptualize and analyze the ways in which geopolitical and cultural forces impact business (cf. Tichy, 1992) and act upon it by involving remote team members and acknowledging the synergistic potential of their cultural perspectives (cf. Koehn & Rosenau, 2002). As such, it reflects global managers' creative competence to envision viable mutually acceptable alternatives

and tap into diverse cultural sources for inspiration (Koehn & Rosenau, 2002). To stimulate their coworkers to follow this reasoning and think beyond their local interests, global managers should be able to transpose this mindset for example by emphasizing the global interests of the company in their team meetings.

Overall, this dissertation guides us towards a skill-set that encompasses five different skills. Global managers can listen and take their time to interact with people in culturally diverse settings, or they can use a personal approach to overcome cultural differences. They also need to efficiently organize their work in terms of virtual communication and business trips, and should be capable of selecting appropriate communication tools. Finally, global managers need to be able to develop a global mindset and transpose it to their remote coworkers.

Towards an integrated HR-policy for global managers

Much of the research in international HRM (IHRM) has focused on aspects of HRM in multinational corporations (DeCieri & Dowling, 2006). This is the most widely recognized approach to IHRM, involving the same elements as HRM within a single country, yet with added complexity due to the diversity of national contexts and inclusion of different national categories of workers (Dowling & Welch, 2004). In this dissertation, we have come to add a category of workers to IHRM that operate on a global or transnational scale, e.g. the global manager. Inspired by the findings in this dissertation, we reflect on HR practices for global managers in terms of selection, training, career development, organizational support and retention.

Selection

Careful selection practices are essential for global leaders (Osland et al., 2006). The findings in this dissertation suggest two potential approaches: selection in terms of personal values and motivations or selection based on CQ.

Findings in the three empirical chapters of this dissertation show that global managers consider their values, meanings and motivations very important in their search for a global management position. Not only do they look for work/life balance, international exposure, professional identification, center of decision-making, career progression and challenge as shown in chapter 4, findings in chapter 3 indicate that global managers actually find stability between their personal and work life. In a similar vein, our data indicate in chapter 5 that global managers find international or multicultural exposure in their position which allows them to consider the world as their working space. Since this dissertation has shown the importance of such values to global managers, we argue that organizations may benefit from using them to select candidates for a global management position. Given that these values and motivations are necessary for global leadership development, but are unlikely to change from the typical training and development methods, Caligiuri (2006) suggests selecting individuals on that basis. According to Spencer and Spencer (1993), this is the most cost-effective approach because motive and trait competencies cannot be taught. Knowledge and skills on the other hand, which are complementary to motive and trait competencies, can be acquired in organizational training sessions. In addition, Spencer and Spencer (1993) argue that people's values and motivations distinguish superior performers in particular jobs from good performers and are therefore a suitable way of selecting superior performers.

In a similar vein, a cultural intelligence approach could be used to select superior performers in a position as global manager. Following Spencer and Spencer's reasoning (1993), this is especially true as CQ goes beyond other forms of intelligence, including not only cognitive, but also behavioral and motivational abilities (Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay & Chandrasekar, 2007). As such, CQ may serve as a selection instrument, selecting candidates not only on knowledge, but also on skills and values/motivations to deal effectively in culturally diverse settings. However, given the relatively new nature of the concept of CQ and our findings in chapter 5 that it needs to be extended in the case of global managers, we argue for further development of CQ and its instruments in future research.

Training and development

Assuming the requisite values are present, training and development interventions can improve global managers' performance and effectiveness on the job by focusing on knowledge and skills. In this dissertation, findings suggest that global managers' knowledge and skills are primarily culture-neutral. We will therefore focus on training and development interventions that are culture-general. According to Hofstede (2001), such training is not specific to any given country. Rather, the knowledge and skills taught apply in any foreign cultural environment. From the findings in chapter 3, training emerges as an important issue to global managers, who perceive their lack of training as unfair compared to the variety of cross-cultural training available to expatriate managers.

First, findings in chapter 3 and chapter 5 indicate that global managers experience a lack of in-depth cultural knowledge. In addition, respondents in this study even question the relevance of in-depth cultural knowledge to their work. As

such, it seems not relevant for organizations to design training opportunities that focus on culture-specific knowledge. Rather, global managers could be taught how to tackle their lack of in-depth cultural knowledge by being mindful (Thomas & Inkson, 2004). Mindfulness implies an enhanced attention to the particular current experience or present reality and its context while creating new mental maps of other peoples' personality and cultural background as a basis for immediate action (Thomas & Inkson, 2004). One possible strategy to attain this could be to negotiate reality (Friedman & Berthoin Antal, 2005). Training global managers to negotiate reality, they first of all need to learn not to arm themselves with an enormous store of knowledge (Friedman & Berthoin Antal, 2005). Rather, they could be trained to have an active awareness of their own cultural framework and how this may influence their perceptions and behaviors. In a later stage, training interventions focus on the exploration of underlying assumptions in other cultures and use those as the basis for learning new ways of seeing and doing things in an effective way in a different cultural context.

Global managers not only have to deal with people from other cultural backgrounds, the findings in chapter 5 also show that global managers need to work across these cultural boundaries simultaneously, dealing with foreign colleagues as equals and integrating these different perspectives into a culturally synergistic approach. The skills that may be taught in this regard may relate to the fusion approach (Janssens & Brett, 2006). Teaching this approach in training sessions, global managers learn to recognize and respect cultural differences and to combine them in ways that preserve the unique qualities of each of these cultures.

In both cases, it might be useful for organizations to design these training programs across the world, including participants originating from all units within the

organization. That way, didactic learning programs (Caligiuri, 2006) can be complemented with experiential learning (Kolb, 1984). Designing training opportunities according to Kolb's experiential learning cycle (1984), global managers can mentally have the experience, reflective observation and abstract conceptualization in groups, after which they can test options such as negotiating reality with their foreign coworkers.

Finally, the findings in chapter 3 also point out the skill to efficiently organize work. In that case, other types of developmental interventions may be more appropriate than traditional educational ones. Organizations could set up personal mentoring or coaching programs (Kram, 1985) that provide counseling with respect to personal and professional dilemmas. They allow both the mentor and mentee to share ideas and perspectives on how to handle their long working hours and frequent absences from home. Rather than transferring knowledge, these programs can facilitate young global managers to exchange experiences with senior managers and learn best practices.

Career development

Although career theories are suggesting an increased or primarily individual responsibility for career development (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Hall, 1996), little empirical evidence supports this shift (Sturges, Guest & MacKenzie Davey, 2000). Rather, more recent studies have started to acknowledge the relevance of a more balanced approach (Baruch, 2006; Pringle & Mallon, 2003). It therefore remains important for organizations to consider career development as an essential part of their HR policy.

The empirical study in chapter 4 shows the career competencies of global managers. Instead of designing organizational career paths that direct workers up the hierarchical ladder, organizations may benefit from taking these competencies into account when designing support practices.

First, the primacy of knowing-why competencies in global managers' career development suggests organizations to consider these values in the design of organizational career development practices. Organizations may support individuals' value-driven approach to career development by giving training to help discover these values and match them to (organizational) career opportunities or jointly developing career plans that incorporate these values (Orpen, 1994).

Second, the findings in chapter 4 discussing global managers' knowing-how competencies show global managers to seek positions in which they can develop their flexible and portable skills base. Organizations may support these individual development efforts (Orpen, 1994), for example by jointly designing a personal development plan (Sturges, Guest, Conway & MacKenzie Davey, 2002). This plan can schedule future opportunities that further extend individuals' range of skills and knowledge.

Finally, in terms of knowing-whom career competencies, the findings in chapter 4 show the importance of business network ties in making horizontal career moves. Organizations may support global managers' network development by introducing them to people who might help develop their career (Sturges et al., 2002) because networks should not only be considered sources of information and support. Rather, they are also considered contexts in which individuals discover, construct, and transmit their identities (Coleman, 1988; Foreman & Whetten, 2002). As such, network ties are suggested to enable individuals to undergo career transitions

successfully (Ibarra, 1999). Having network ties within the organization may therefore support (organizational) career development.

Organizational support

Organizational support theory suggests that individuals infer the extent to which the organization cares about their well-being through various policies, practices, and treatment. Individuals then reciprocate such support with increased loyalty and performance (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In the case of expatriates, perceived organizational support has been positively related to adjustment to the country and work (Kraimer, Wayne & Jaworski, 2001), organizational commitment (Guzzo, Noonan & Elron, 1994) and intentions to remain on the assignment (Shaffer, Harrisson, Gilley & Luk, 2001). We therefore suggest some organizational support practices that might have similar effects in the case of global managers.

First, the data in chapter 3 indicate global managers' need for logistic support from the organization when going on business trips. For example, organizations could set up a travel service to support business trips. That way, global managers can inform this service on their intention to travel to a certain country, after which the travel service takes care of the administration, health issues, insurance issues and travel arrangements. However, given the cost-driven travel policies of organizations nowadays (Oddou, Mendenhall & Ritchie, 2000), it may not be cost-effective and/or feasible for organizations to set up a travel service within the organization. An alternative might be to develop and constantly update country information packs that include a stepwise approach for global managers to prepare their business trips themselves. As such, it would include guidelines to take care of administration, health and insurance issues and travel arrangements in the specific context of the country to

which one is travelling. In addition, these information packs could include best practices on how to get around locally and which hotels and restaurants to visit.

Second, findings in chapter 3 as well as chapter 5 suggest that organizations may focus on providing their workers facilities that support their work/life balance. Earlier studies have shown that flexible work arrangements like part-time work, telework or job sharing enable companies to retain high quality workers because their employees are better able to achieve a balance between work and family (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2007). In the case of global managers, electronic facilities at home can support long working hours by enabling global managers to take part in their family lives and continue working before or afterwards. Or it may limit global managers' number of business trips by enabling them to have an almost continuous contact with coworkers overseas.

Retention

Turnover inflicts numerous costs for organizations (Mitchell, Holtom & Lee, 2001). Especially in complex jobs, such as a global management position, organizations could lose valuable knowledge and expertise through voluntary turnover. Findings in chapter 3 show that fulfilling the job of global manager enforces a number of challenges upon individuals. Accordingly, successful performance in this type of job leverages valuable knowledge and expertise that organizations might want to retain, such as the skill to control workers at a distance or make them think beyond local interests. In a similar vein, the findings in chapter 5 indicate successful global managers to be, or at least come close to a state of Cultural Intelligence. In order to retain those experienced workers, our study suggests a number of avenues for developing an organizational retention plan.

First, the primacy of knowing-why career competencies shown in chapter 4 suggests that organizations can retain global management experience by ensuring a good fit between the global manager and his/her job. Employers could provide opportunities that respond to global managers' motivations and interests, such as international exposure or professional identification. Or compensation plans can facilitate this fit (Mitchell et al., 2001), for example allowing global managers to choose more vacation time instead of fieldwork allowances. This way, these plans might respond to global managers' value of striving for work/life balance.

Second, our findings in chapter 4 show that global managers not only value vertical progression throughout their career development. Respondents in this study also indicate to make horizontal career moves through business networking. This might challenge organizations to use personal development plans. Discussing and revising these plans jointly on a regular basis, organizations can support global managers' career paths by providing viable opportunities that develop global managers in the preferred direction.

An agenda for future IHRM research

Given the seeming neglect of global managers in previous IHRM research, there is considerable scope for further scientific study of this important group of international workers. In this part of the epilogue, we develop an agenda for future IHRM research. We thereby focus on two issues. First, we make suggestions to further develop and validate the notion of global manager. Second, we identify productive areas in the context of the global manager where future research is warranted. The resulting research questions cover three main themes: (1) personal characteristics; (2) the strategic nature of global managers' work; and (3) their careers.

Validation of the notion global manager

In this dissertation, we empirically examined the theoretically defined notion of the transnationally competent or global manager (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992; Pucik & Saba, 1998). As our study is the first empirical examination of global managers, future research needs to assert that our findings do not depend upon or are generalizable beyond the specific data, methods or measurements used in this study (Weber, 1985). A first and fundamental step in the process of validation is to broaden the sample of global managers in order to confirm the various elements identified in this dissertation (cf. Welch & Worm, 2006). Future research may therefore replicate this study to determine the consistency of the research findings (Kvale, 1996). Especially in the case of interviews, it is recommended to have other researchers and coders replicating the study in order to test its reliability and counteract haphazard subjectivity (Kvale, 1996).

Second, future research should test the notion of global manager in several different configurations. According to Morse (1994), testing the key construct and its explanation in several different settings enhances its generalizability. In this dissertation, the study of global managers was limited to three Belgian headquartered organizations. Other settings in which the results of this dissertation could be tested are other entities within the organization like subsidiaries or centers of excellence, other organizations and industries that are not necessarily transnational and additional country contexts. These enable the researcher to contrast and compare several viewpoints, for example triangulating the data from headquarters with data from subsidiaries (Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, Penttinen & Tahvanainen, 2004). Or a more rigorous research approach could include other parties concerned such as family members, peers, line and HR managers (cf. Welch & Worm, 2006). This type of data

triangulation, combining different viewpoints, will provide future studies an increased reliability and validity.

Third, quantitative research may further determine the relevance of global managers in today's marketplace. Future research may benefit from studying the extent of global managers deployed in transnational business environments and how this is related to the use of other types of international assignments in contemporary organizations.

In sum, these avenues for future research reflect opportunities to further develop theory on the global manager. This is especially relevant given the emerging and extensive use of the term 'global' to describe contemporary IHRM issues. Therefore, clear explication and careful consideration of the term and its combination into 'the global manager' is warranted. Following the suggested avenues, future research will be able to establish the concrete operationalization of the global manager (cf. De Cieri & Dowling, 2006; Peterson, 2004) and support the field of IHRM by a sound empirically grounded concept that instigates further theorizing.

Research questions emerging from this dissertation

The empirical findings of this dissertation point to a number of additional research questions on the topic of global managers. These research questions cover three main themes: (1) personal characteristics; (2) the strategic nature of global managers' work; and (3) their careers.

Personal characteristics. The experiences of global managers in this dissertation indicate the variety of work contexts in which they need to perform. Not only do they need to work across different locations, modern technology provides

them with a range of communication tools that increases this variety to include videoconferencing, teleconferencing and desktop sharing.

Following the reasoning in traditional expatriate research that expatriate managers can give allegiance to the parent firm or local firm (Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall & Stroh, 1999), an important research question that emerges from this dissertation concerns the allegiance of global managers. It would seem straightforward to think that global managers in this study give allegiance to headquarters, as it represents the stationary home base from which they operate. However, their motivation to work across multiple cultures and consider the world as their working space, as found in this dissertation, might indicate a distinct type of allegiance. In addition, recent literature on new careers indicates that contemporary workers could also give allegiance to their personal careers, in terms of building career capital (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994). Therefore, future research might benefit from exploring global managers' allegiance in-depth, for example by studying critical incidents. This will not only enable IHRM research to identify global managers' allegiance but also give organizations the opportunity to determine the highlights of their HR-policy and support practices on that basis.

Second, another potentially productive area for future research is to determine global managers' competency profile. Identifying the capabilities needed in order to be effective benefits individuals as well as organizations. From an individual perspective, potential candidates for a position as global managers may benefit from a predetermined competency profile that enables them to adequately prepare themselves and develop the competencies needed. Global managers themselves may identify their strengths and weaknesses and focus their attention in career capital accumulation to the competencies identified as weaknesses. From an organizational perspective,

competency profiles could be used in order to select and train potential candidates for a position as global manager. That way, organizations can ensure optimal and effective performance from the start. Apart from taking this content approach, future research could also aim to explicate the process that global managers utilize to develop these competencies and identify the contingencies that influence their behavior in specific contexts.

Strategic nature of global managers' work. In this dissertation, a content approach was taken to study global managers' responsibility of worldwide coordination. However, starting the empirical research with the identification of the transnational environment as the context in which to select organizations and respondents, our study also points to a strategic approach as a potentially productive area for future research. In line with earlier well-known theorizing on the control and coordination purposes of deploying expatriate managers (Edström & Galbraith, 1977), future research studies might examine the strategic purposes of deploying global managers across centers of excellence in a transnational context. Explicitating its strategic purposes, results of these studies might enhance insights on the strategic goals set and further develop strategic IHRM (SIHRM) theory.

First, as a potential cause of the emerging trend to deploy more flexible international workers such as global managers, complexity seems to be a very recent and important phenomenon in organizations (Gottfredson & Aspinall, 2005; PriceWaterhouseCoopers, 2006). Earlier research has shown that organizations are just beginning to manage complexity (Bryan & Zanini, 2005; Lane, Maznevski, Mendenhall & McNett, 2004), which reflects an appropriate time for IHRM researchers to start exploring whether global managers are an organizational means to manage different types of complexity, across countries, cultures, functional domains

and/or identities. Taking such approach allows future research to study the phenomenon of complexity from a different viewpoint, which might lead to interesting and innovating results that can further develop IHRM theory as well as the strategic literature.

Second, traditional expatriate research considers knowledge transfer a traditional expatriate assignment-based strategy (Hocking, Brown & Harzing, 2007). In a similar vein, the strategic nature of global managers' work could be studied by examining the knowledge transfer it enables between centers of excellence within the organization. In transnational organizations, characterized by an increasing interdependency between units, a multidirectional flow of knowledge between all global units is an important prerequisite for organizational performance (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989; Edström & Galbraith, 1977). However, the question remains whether and how global managers are stimulating this flow of knowledge. Future research may therefore benefit from studying the potential strategic value of global managers to their organizations in terms of knowledge transfer and worldwide learning.

Careers. Nowadays, changes in the external environment and the corresponding firm strategy are causing firms to alter the nature of their employment exchange (Cappelli, 1999). As a result, the career systems, the set of HRM policies and practices as well as management actions that serve to direct employees during their tenure with an organization, are continuously changing. Further research is therefore warranted in the domain of global career development and global career systems (Schuler & Tarique, 2007; Thomas, Lazarova & Inkson, 2005).

First, future research is warranted into the nature of different career moves. The results of this dissertation display a wide variety of career moves that were combined into distinct career paths. Broadening the sample and studying each distinct

career move in-depth, future research may determine the specific preconditions and effects of a position as global manager as well as those of a position as expatriate and/or inpatriate manager. This is especially relevant in learning organizations how to design and construct career systems in a global context. From the workers' viewpoint, it might result in the identification of competencies needed when aiming for a position as international worker.

Second, the continuously changing circumstances of globalization indicate international workers' need for career resilience. This reflects their ability to adapt to changing circumstances and their dedication to continuous learning and commitment to personal excellence (Collard, Epperheimer & Saign, 1996; London, 1993). In this dissertation, findings point to a certain extent of career resilience, showing that global managers under study display a multitude and variety of career moves. In addition, global managers' career competencies indicate their individual career responsibility and commitment to continuous skill development (knowing-how). However, future research is needed to study global managers' career resilience more in-depth. One potential avenue is for future (quantitative) studies to examine the development of knowledge and skills that global managers require to make a visible and personally motivated contribution to the organization and its customers, reflecting career resilience as it refers to individual career development (Collard et al., 1996). Results of these studies might enhance insights in how global managers cope career-wise with continuous changes and may trigger organizations to increase career resilience by reinforcing good work, providing opportunities for achievement and creating an environment that is conducive to risk taking (London, 1993).

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APPENDIX 1 – OVERVIEW OF THE SELECTION OF EMPIRICAL ARTICLES (CHAPTER 1)

Author, year	Research Focus	Findings
INDIVIDUAL DOMAIN		
1. Career competencies		
a. Knowing-why		
Earley, 1987	Examining training methods preparing managers to go overseas	International assignment was described as a desirable, but not essential, task for their career goals
Peltonen, 1998	Conducting an analysis of the discursive patterns of expatriates' talk of their own career development	Three discourses were identified: bureaucratic, occupational and enterprising
Clegg & Gray, 2002	Understanding the experiences of Australian expatriates in Thailand	Career progression, remuneration offered and change in lifestyle were found to be deciding motivators
Mayrhofer & Scullion, 2002	Analysing the situation of male and female expatriates in the German clothing industry	Career goals of female expatriates were gaining international experience and living abroad
Stahl, Miller & Tung, 2002	Analysing the motivation of managers to accept an international assignment	Main motives to accept an international assignment were personal challenge and professional development
b. Knowing-how		
Tung, 1998	Understanding the importance of the international assignment to overall career development	An overseas assignment was considered an opportunity to acquire skills and experience that are not available at home
Stahl, Miller & Tung, 2002	Examining the motivation of managers to accept an international assignment and factors that influence them in their decision to go abroad	Main motivation to accept an international assignment was to improve professional, managerial and intercultural skills
Culpan & Wright, 2002	Testing the influence of individual characteristics and skills of expatriate women managers	Language skills, negotiation skills and listening skills were used and developed, enhancing performance
c. Knowing-whom		
Au & Fukuda, 2002	Exploring the boundary spanning of expatriates	Having a culturally diverse network helped expatriates with boundary spanning activities and gave them new career aspirations
Linehan, 2002	Assessing the international career transition made by senior female managers in Western Europe	Main challenge for female international managers was the exclusion from male influence networks
Linehan & Scullion, 2002	Examining the perceptions of senior female expatriate managers in	Weak integration in organizational networks negatively influenced

	relation to the repatriation phase of their international career move	promotion and acceptance
2. Locus of career development responsibility		
Inkson, Pringle, Arthur & Barry, 1997	Comparing the expatriate assignment and overseas experience models of international career experience	Overseas experience was found to be a personal odyssey initiated and resourced by the individual
Selmer, 1998	Examining personal career intentions (being determined to have an expatriate career)	Clear positive association was found between personal expatriate career intentions and socio-cultural and psychological adjustment
Tung, 1998	Understanding the importance of the international assignment to overall career development, modes of acculturation and mechanisms used to adjust to living abroad	Successful completion of an international assignment was believed to enhance career prospects, either within their organisation or without
Suutari & Brewster, 2000	Examining workers on self-initiated assignment abroad	The initiative for a self-initiated foreign assignment was coming from the individual
Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2001	Understanding the repatriate support practices currently offered by organizations and how effective they are at lowering repatriates' turnover intentions	Lack of support found for the role of organizational commitment, instead acquisition of additional skills and experiences valuable for their advancement in career, not in their company
Culpan & Wright, 2002	Testing the influence of individual characteristics and skills of expatriate women managers	Women made their own plans and organized their careers overseas with little or no help from other companies
Stahl, Miller & Tung, 2002	Examining the nature of the expatriate career concept	Majority of expatriates viewed their international assignment as an opportunity for skill development and future career advancement, even though it may not have been with their current company
3. Work/personal life		
Harvey, 1998	Examining various categories of dual-career/dual-income couples and the impact of career orientation upon relocation	Family and career life-cycle of the dual career partners played a pivotal role in the willingness of the couples to relocate
Tung, 1998	Understanding the importance of the international assignment to overall career development, modes of acculturation and mechanisms used to adjust to living abroad	Spending more time with the family was a coping mechanism to adjust to living abroad
Linehan, 2002	Assessing the international career transition made by senior female managers in Western Europe	Challenge for female international managers was to balance demands of international career versus those of maintaining a relationship and child raising

ORGANIZATIONAL DOMAIN		
1. Nature of employment		
Forster, 1994	Understanding experiences of a group of expatriate UK managers and professionals who have recently returned to the UK from foreign assignments	Repatriation was found to be an atypical work-role career transition with an equal potential for negative as for positive outcomes
Forster, 2000	Examining the idea of the 'international manager'	More frequent cross-border job swops, short assignments or assignments to multi-cultural project teams were expected
2. Organizational design		
Naumann, 1993	Identifying the factors under control of the organization that may predict expatriate job satisfaction	Job/task characteristics were strongly related to intrinsic satisfaction
Feldman & Tompson, 1993	Examining the impact of six sets of factors on multiple indices of adjustment to new job assignments	Job assignments that fit in with overall career plans facilitated adjustment
Suutari & Brewster, 2000	Examining workers on self-initiated assignment abroad	Expatriates were working more frequently in matrix organizations, while SFEs worked more common in the project type of organization
Linehan & Scullion, 2002	Examining the perceptions of senior female expatriate managers in relation to the repatriation phase of their international career move	Almost all female expatriates experienced a loss of status and autonomy upon their return, re-entry stage should be built in as part of overall career plan
3. Knowledge sharing systems		
Engelhard & Nägele, 2003	Examining features of organizational learning processes in a cross-cultural context	Technical skills were found more likely to be transferred than soft management skills
4. Organizational support practices		
Ivancevich & Baker, 1970	Examining perceived job satisfactions of overseas managerial personnel	Increased assurance of not being by-passed in salary reviews, promotions, or training and development was found to positively influence security need satisfaction scores
Tung, 1986	Examining the most common problems encountered by American and Western corporate executives in living and working in China	Concern that prolonged absence from corporate headquarters negatively affected their chances of promotion within the corporate organizational hierarchy
Harvey, 1989	Understanding problems that exist for an executive upon re-entry from a foreign assignment	Lack of repatriation programs was found; topic that received attention was career path counselling

Feldman & Thomas, 1992	Exploring expatriate assignments from a career development perspective	Perception of connection between assignment and long term career plan was positively related to performance, relationships with host nationals, skill acquisition, intent to remain, job satisfaction and mutual influence
Feldman & Tompson, 1993	Examining the impact of six sets of factors on multiple indices of adjustment to new job assignments	Having mentors and realistic job previews positively related to indices of adjustment
Guzzo, Noonan & Elron, 1994	Investigating employer practices toward expatriate managers and their relation to retention-relevant outcomes	Retention-relevant outcomes were found to be influenced by expatriates' subjective evaluations of employer practices
Birdseye & Hill, 1995	Assessing the effects of selected individual, organization/work and environmental characteristics on intent-to-leave measures relating to individuals' jobs, organizations and geographic locations	Advancement prospects associated with turnover; uncertainty about career prospects after the assignment was a concern for some of these executives
Stroh, 1995	Exploring the predictors of turnover among repatriates and testing a model of organizational career development	Having a career development plan was best predictor of repatriate turnover
Fish & Wood, 1996	Identifying the factors across six separately identified expatriate staffing practices that guide these practices in Australian business enterprises	Role clarity, or the necessity for staff to be fully informed about the performance expectations of the role prior to undertaking an appointment overseas, was an important factor
Forster & Johnsen, 1996	Understanding the management of international assignments in 15 UK companies that have expanded their operations into the international arena over the last 3-12 years	Important factor was lack of advice about the possible implications of moves abroad for their career progression after return to the UK
Feldman & Bolino, 1999	Examining the importance of on-site mentors for the effective socialization of expatriates given the host national culture	On-site mentoring, being task mentoring, career mentoring, psycho-social and role model mentoring, was positively related to expatriate socialization. More mentoring was received in small power distance, weak uncertainty avoidance and individualistic cultures
Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2001	Focusing on the repatriate support practices currently offered by organizations and how effective they are at lowering repatriates' turnover intentions	Organizational support of career investment activities through relevant repatriation practices encouraged retention, but without necessarily positively influencing long-term loyalty
Linehan, 2002	Assessing the international career transition made by senior female managers in Western Europe	A challenge for female international managers was a lack of mentors

Linehan & Scullion, 2002	Examining perceptions of senior female expatriate managers in relation to the repatriation phase of their international career move	Advancement to international management was believed to be partially based on successful development of mentoring relationships
Suutari & Brewster, 2003	Exploring what kind of impacts an international assignment had on careers of Finnish expatriates	Positive career impacts of international assignments, high interest in changing employers, repatriation support practices were rare
5. Staffing policy		
Miller, 1972	Examining the personnel decision maker's behavior in the decision process and the way in which an international selection appointment is reached	Candidates with high qualifications and proven performance were selected, which was considered suboptimal for the appointee's career development
Miller, 1973	Examining manager's behavior within the international personnel selection decision process	Selecting a person who is fully or overly qualified for a position was found to prevent the individual from growing and developing as a result of the assignment
Daniels, 1974	Profiling American and European subsidiary managers of U.S. and local firms regarding education, interfirm mobility and upward mobility	American expatriates were more mobile and educated than European subsidiary managers in U.S. firms while those latter were more mobile and educated than their domestic counterparts
Ondrack, 1985	Examining the relationship between the type of international operations of the firm and two basic HR activities to staff these operations with managers	Geocentric transfer and career patterns were found for managers from the headquarters country, while polycentric or regiocentric transfer patterns were found for managers from host countries
Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney, 1997	Identifying and validating a set of end-state competencies that are used to identify international executives	End-state competency and learning-oriented dimensions were found to predict executive potential
GLOBAL ENVIRONMENT DOMAIN		
1. Economic drivers		
Inkson, Pringle, Arthur & Barry, 1997	Comparing the expatriate assignment and overseas experience models of international career experience	More frequent reliance on expertise from outside as implication of overseas experiences
2. Technology		
Peltonen, 1998	Conducting an analysis of the discursive patterns of expatriates' talk of their own career development	In engineering discourse, the international career step was found to be evaluated against the career of the product technology

3. Multi-cultural environment		
Adler, 1984	Testing the myth of companies' reluctance to send women overseas	North American personnel managers saw foreign cultural practices as posing major barriers to female expatriate managers
Florkowski & Fogel, 1999	Assessing how expatriates' work attitudes are affected by perceptions of host ethnocentrism	Perceived host ethnocentrism resulted in less favourable work attitudes of the expatriate

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